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ART. I.—COMMERCE OF EGYPT.*

THE ancient mother of religions, arts, and laws, Egypt, placed as it is on the confines of Asia, Africa, and Europe, gains importance daily, as the interests of the three continents become more and more commingled. Its physical isolation and compactness of population, together with their immemorial submissiveness, have given its present remarkable ruler peculiar advantages in causing this garden and store-house to become what "it must from the necessity of things be, the great bazaar of the Old World. It must be a centre of influence, self-supported, or dependent only on those commercial relations which time will gather round it."

The area of Egypt proper, from Syene, or Assonan, north, between the western desert, and the two seas, is about equal to that of "the Middle States" of the American Union; but the cultivable land, i. e. the land watered naturally or artificially by the Nile, equalled, in 1835, only about 2,000,000 acres; though this might be increased even to 3,500,000. Beyond the reach of these fertilizing waters, all is frightful sterility; presenting upon a region of moving sands and sun-burnt rocks, the pale and yellow hues of death, in glaring contrast with the greenness of the busy valley, and its blue, life-giving stream. But there is some pasturage in the mountains and on the skirts of the sandy waste.

"A perpetual struggle is carried on between the desert and cultivation. In many parts of the Delta, the desert has invaded and mastered the soil. In the neighborhood of Abowzabel, in the district of Essiout, and some other parts of Egypt, the desert has been vanquished by cultivation. In fact, were there hands to plough, and water to irrigate, it is not easy to calculate what an immense tract of territory might be rescued from the waste. The hot winds of the desert, however, often destroy the hopes of the husbandman; their intensity and duration become objects, to him, of the greatest anxiety, for there are seasons in which the khamsine (which takes its name from its ordinary duration of fifty days) dries up whole dis-

* Prepared mostly from Bowring's Report to the British Government, 1840.
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tracts, even after irrigation. Added to this, the prospect of large and productive harvests is sometimes suddenly cut off by the visitations of locusts." The inundations of the river, too, on which the country depends, are very various in character and consequences: when favorable to the upper regions, they are excessive in the lower; and when they suit the lower districts, they sometimes leave the higher country almost dry.

"One of the greatest public works ever contemplated in Egypt, is the barrage intended to regulate the waters of the Nile, by a huge dam, with sluices, near the fork of the Delta. The original suggestion emanated from the scientific men of the French expedition, and Napoleon is reported to have spoken in its favor. M. Linant, who has had the direction of the work, estimates that it will irrigate 3,800,000 feddans,* even in the lowest inundations, and without the aid of machines; and that, with the aid of machines, a very large quantity in addition, up to a distance of eight leagues above the barrage, would be supplied with water. He represents that it will meliorate the canal navigation, improve both the Damietta and Rosetta branches of the Nile, give sufficient water to Mahmondich canal, and allow the largest vessels to communicate from that canal to the Nile; and will enable canals of three or four metres wide (*nili*) to supersede the *seffie* of eight metres, which now must be cleared every year. He asserts that it will, at a small charge, enable the government to make the canal of Suez navigable; undoubtedly one of the most important undertakings that can be suggested for the improvement of Egypt, and the commercial interests of mankind. It will give water to the *Kalish* of Cairo all the year round, in supplies as sufficient as are provided by the most favorable inundations. He objects to the present system of irrigation, that the making canals does not raise the level of the water, while every year the canals get more and more filled with mud; and shows, that in the uncertainty of the inundations, no calculations can be made as to the probable agricultural produce of the country. He estimates that the work would require five years for its completion, and that the expense would be \$7,758,164. On this report orders were given for commencing this stupendous work, worthy the land of the pyramids. But it seems to have been entered on without due consideration, and, after a large expenditure, has been again abandoned, or deferred. Two millions of stones, &c., were collected, covering no less than 2,000 acres of good land, thus thrown out of cultivation, and 12,000 workmen were employed. A railway has been formed, connecting with the Nile the quarries of the Mokattam mountains, behind Cairo, (out of which the stones of the pyramids were hewn,) in order to furnish stone for the work. Arrangements had been made for a vast supply of forest timber from the woods in the neighborhood of Scanderoon." Thus, some \$850,000 were expended; but the arrangements now proceed sluggishly, nineteen-twentieths of the workmen have been dismissed, and the works do not seem to be prosecuted with the vigor and unity of purpose which presided at first. Besides, so much efficiency has been discovered in the steam engine for raising water, that it may be found better to use it instead of the dam.

"The productive powers of the soil of Egypt are incalculable. Wherever water is scattered, there springs up a rapid and beautiful vegetation; the seed is sown and watered, and scarcely any other care is required for

* A *feddan* is calculated by Mr. Lane to be somewhat less than an acre.

the ordinary fruits of the earth. Even in spots adjacent to the desert, and which seem to be taken possession of by the sands, irrigation brings rapidly forth a variety of green herbs and plants. In two years an agreeable garden may be created in the neighborhood of Alexandria, which is the least promising part of Egypt. Many a spot there is where the tall weeds grow coarsely but splendidly, which would nourish the fairest fruits and richest produce."

In Lower Egypt are some 50,000 watering machines, called *sakiahs*, worked by some 100,000 men, or 150,000 oxen; besides innumerable instruments like a New England "well-sweep," called *shadoofs*. The viceroy stated that he had introduced 38,000 *sakiahs*. As one of them costs 1,200 piastres,* and an ox 900, 50,000 *sakiahs*, &c., represent a capital of 165,000,000 piastres; and for the one hundred and eighty working days in the year, the men at 1, and the oxen at 1½ piastres per day, the cost is 58,500,000 piastres. Calculating the interest on the first cost of the *sakiahs* and oxen, at the usual rate, 12 per cent per annum, we have the enormous annual outlay of 65,520,000 piastres, for irrigation alone, in Lower Egypt. M. Linant calculates that the dam above mentioned would save this expense, besides much of that of canals, one of which, (the small canal of Serdawi,) watering but 8,000 *feddans*, cost \$500,000.

The population of Egypt, under Amasis, (who united the twelve jarring kingdoms Isaiah speaks of, chap. xix., verse 2.) was seven to nine millions, and it is said to have then had twenty thousand cities; now, it has two to two and a half millions of people, who, however, are very prolific, as were the Egyptians anciently. Indeed, the houses swarm with children, so that, as the laws of health are becoming better known and practised, and the drafts for foreign wars, which drained the country of its most vigorous and productive men, have at present ceased, the working population may be expected to increase very rapidly. Accurate statistics in the East, are, of course, at present, out of the question; but it is estimated that of the people, 150 to 200,000 are Copts, 18 to 20,000 Turks, 7,000 Greeks, 6,000 Catholic Franks, 3,000 Jews, 2,000 Armenians, and the rest are Arab fellahs and Bedawin.

Almost all the agricultural production of the country is in the hands of the Mahometan fellahs, who are the most submissive, gay, and excitable of beings. Under every political change, the fellah's destiny has been unchanged; rarely accumulating wealth, the day's labor provides but for the day; a few ornaments, purchased or inherited, a mud hut, without floor or window, and a few utensils of the cheapest and commonest sort, are his all. Idolizing the Nile, almost as of yore, and considering no evil to be compared to quitting the sight of it, he soon pines to death elsewhere; but, careless of the future, if left in peace to cultivate his land and pour the waters of his beloved river over the rich soil on its banks, "he would neither desire nor dream of a happier condition; he is contented, though a perpetual laborer, to gather little of the fruits of his labor; and of his race it may be said, as Amron said of the ancient Egyptians, 'They are bees, always toiling, always toiling for others, not themselves.' He will rather die than revolt; impatience under any yoke is unknown to him; resignation is his primary virtue; his life, his faith, his law is submission. He was made for peace, not for war; and though his patriotism is intense, there

* Twenty piastres go to the dollar.

is no mingling in it of the love of glory or the passion for conquest. His nationality is in his local affections, and they are most intense. Could prosperity be his, what songs, what music, what joys!"

The Christian Copts exercise all the functions of scribes and accountants; and as their influence is undoubtedly an increasing one, they will probably occupy no small part of the field in the future history of Egypt. They are the surveyors, the scribes, the arithmeticians, the measurers, the clerks; in a word, the learned men of the land; but though better instructed than the Arabs, their reputation for probity and veracity, enslaved as they are, is, of course, very low. Their numbers do not appear to increase.

The Turks, or Osmanlis, are everywhere the paramount rulers, and still retain, so universal is the habit of obedience among the natives, a complete ascendancy, though it is not despotic, as formerly; and both their numbers and influence are diminishing, as they do not breed well in Egypt, and the immigration is small. In the capitals their number is considerable: 5,000 at Cairo, 2,000 at Alexandria, 3,000 scattered in Upper and Lower Egypt; 2,000 Mamelukes are attached to Turkish families, as servants and guards, and about 300 apostate Greeks are in the same situations. There are about 3,000 Georgian, Circassian, and Mingrelian, and 6,000 Greek slaves; but the Circassian war with Russia has diminished the supplies of youths to the south from the Caucasian districts.

The number of the Bedawin cannot be got at, but as their means of existence are limited, it is probably stationary. Neither in costume nor in habits have they undergone any change from immemorial time; and they keep aloof from all other races. Restrained by the strong hand of Mahomet Ali, who has completely subjected them, they are no longer predatory, however; and some, in the Fayoom, appear to be gradually adopting a pastoral life. On the tracts, where the desert is contiguous to cultivable land, many have spread their tents and devoted themselves to agriculture. They are somewhat thievish, but as they furnish a valuable contingent of irregular cavalry to the viceroy's army, they are favorably regarded by the authorities, though disliked by their neighbors; like as of old, the nomad was "an abomination" to the settled Egyptian. (Genesis, chapter xvi, verse 34.) Where waste land is brought into cultivation by them, or by others, no land-tax at all is levied for a certain number of years. Few of the Bedawin are stationary, except on the skirts of the wilderness, where they pass some months of the year upon the green spots with their flocks and herds. They are seen in considerable numbers in the larger towns, and are the principal proprietors of the troops of camels, which are almost the only beasts of burthen in Egypt. "Physically, the Arabs are a much nobler looking race; they walk with a proud and bold step, simply clad, and seemingly regardless of the world and the world's luxuries."

The Armenians are, as a body, generally instructed and influential, and occupy many of the most important posts of government. Boghos Youk-souff, the prime minister of the viceroy, is an Armenian Christian. Their great acquirements in languages fit them peculiarly for the important offices of secretaries and dragomans, or interpreters. Many work in gold and silver, or exercise various handicrafts. The Orthodox are far the most numerous, and under their own patriarchs; the Catholic Armenians, on the other hand, recognize the Pope of Rome.

The negroes are almost wholly engaged in domestic servitude; few or

none are occupied in field labor. 6,000 houses in Cairo have black women and Abyssinians for domestics, the average being two each. Besides these 12,000 female, there are probably 2,000 male slaves, and 2,500 in the army. There is an immense influx from Nubia of free blacks; they are faithful domestic servants, employed for the most part as porters, door-keepers, watchmen, &c. They guarantee the good conduct of one another. Cairo has some 5,000 of them. They rarely marry Egyptian women, but return home with their earnings, to be succeeded by perpetual swarms of new emigrants. This trusty, amiable character, strikingly corresponds to that given of the Ethiopians in Scripture, and to the epithet "blameless," applied to them by the ancients. "Their step is erect—their mien noble—they have confidence in themselves and their fellows—in proportion as you advance into the interior, the bearing of the Nubians becomes bolder and prouder." Distinction of color brings none of rank or position.

The Franks and Levantines, as Greeks, Maltese, &c., in their multitudinous varieties, are traders and shopkeepers. This motley population is found in the principal cities of Egypt, as elsewhere in the Levant. Some, too, are employed as artisans and domestics, and multitudes are wanderers less respectably occupied. Their number in Alexandria alone is 8 or 10,000.

Thus, as all these various races and occupations keep themselves so distinct, we perceive the shadow still left of that iron system of castes which now prevails in India, as it anciently did in Egypt.

Formerly, the soil of Egypt was vested in the sovereign; and when Mahomet Ali came to power, he required all the titles to be deposited in his fisc, and granted annuities to their owners. The holding may now be considered as of the value of from three to four years' purchase. The Franks did not, till lately, hold much real estate, as it was believed to be contrary to Mahometan law, and they paid no tax; but large portions of land and great numbers of houses and warehouses have now passed *in fee* into the hands of Frank settlers, and as the more easy and convenient mode, the registration is in the name of some Frank female. The existing legislation, however, demands great changes to encourage such settlers to purchase and hold such property. Grants are often made by the viceroy of unoccupied land. Cases of abandonment by the fellahs are frequent, and the abandoned land is distributed to new applicants. The government being thus invested with the proprietorship of the soil, any quantity of land is ceded to applicants for cultivation on the payment of the *miri*, i. e. land-tax, the minimum of which is 7s. 9d. sterling per annum, the maximum, 12s. 8d. the feddan, which is somewhat less than an acre. When the Nile rises 23 to 24 coudees, some 2,000,000 feddans are cultivated, and pay tax; but sometimes the river does not rise more than 19 coudees.

In the distribution of agricultural production, the government generally takes the initiative by determining what quantity of a particular article shall be cultivated in a given district, and at a price fixed upon before the delivery. When the holder of lands has capital for seed, and can afford to wait for the returns, this price will give 15 to 20 per cent on the outlay of capital; but when the fellah is poor, it scarcely allows him to exist. In bad and sterile years the government advances the fellah seed, to be paid for with interest at harvest. The excuses alleged for forcing a particular

cultivation is, that the lazy habits of the fellahs would induce them to abandon cultivation altogether, or at all events only to produce the articles necessary for their own consumption, and such as required the smallest application of labor, were not the despotic stimulant applied. The fellahs, however, must be exceptions to the rest of the human race, if the *assured* rewards of industry are not enough stimulus to a healthy productiveness. But there is also, in the Mahometan religion itself, "a great want of encouragement to art, science, or industry. The book and the sword are the only two objects which it presents as worthy the ambition or the reverence of its votaries. It does not give honor to labor."

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION, ETC.

Six steampackets visit Alexandria monthly: three from Marseilles, which touch at Malta and Syria, and bring letters from Constantinople; two from Trieste, which touch at Crete, (or did); and one from England, which comes direct from Malta, and proceeds from Alexandria to Beyroot, in Syria. By a better combination than exists, letters might be received from Europe regularly, every four or five days; as it is, (in 1840,) 10 days scarcely ever elapse without the arrival of a steamer.

There are 10 French steamers in the service which are dependent on the post office administration. Syra is the point of union where the different vessels from Marseilles, Constantinople, Athens, and Alexandria, exchange their correspondence and tranship their passengers. Each steamer has engines of one hundred and sixty horse power, and a crew of forty-two men. From Marseilles to Alexandria the passage is of fourteen to fifteen days, including the stoppages, and about the same to Constantinople. The charge for passengers is five hundred and ninety-eight francs to the former, and five hundred and ninety-one to the latter. Single letters are charged two francs in addition to the inland postage. Letters between London and Alexandria generally arrive in from seventeen to nineteen days.

The Austrian steamers leave Trieste for Ancona, Corfu, Patras, and Canea, on the 6th and 20th of every month, and leave Alexandria on every 5th and 20th. In consequence of the embarrassments of the quarantine regulations, the calling at Canea, in Crete, was about to be abandoned; but since the island has reverted to the Porte, the quarantine may have been annulled or altered.

A steamer also plies between Alexandria and Constantinople direct, departing from each port every twenty days.

"The ordinary communication between Alexandria and Cairo is by the Mahmoudich canal, which joins the Nile at Atfeh, where the goods and passengers are disembarked and transferred to other boats on the river; for though there are sluices which would enable the same vessel to continue its course by passing from the canal to the river, they are seldom opened, and the transshipment almost always takes place at this spot, the population of which has of late years greatly augmented; the inhabitants now, not being much less than 7,500, according to the statement made by the British agent there. The price for a boat from Alexandria to Atfeh, varies from forty to one hundred piastres. From Atfeh to Boulag, the port of Cairo, from two hundred to one thousand piastres, according to the demand for boats, and the character of the boat engaged; the average passage from Alexandria to Cairo, as the wind generally sets from north

to south, is about four days, but it is frequently much longer. The Arab sailors, however, make more progress than might be expected. When the wind is fair they crowd their sails, often exposing the passengers to danger from the very sudden gusts which sometimes surprise them—as they are almost equally at home in the water or out of it, the risk they run is very small; but the number of persons is considerable who perish in the Nile from the carelessness of the Arab boatmen. When the wind is contrary, they land and tow the vessel along the banks, and sometimes they leap into the stream and tow the vessel as they swim; but delays are frequent. It is out of the question to expect to make a passage without being now and then on the sands; on the whole, the management of the boats is very dextrous, and the conduct of the boatmen prompt and courageous.”*

The Mahmoudich canal and the Nile are the most active, not to say the only channels of communication for the principal markets of Egypt. From the smallest *cangias* and *dahabiehs* to the largest *maashes*,—from boats of four or five tons to vessels of one hundred and twenty tons burthen,—there is a perpetual activity on these two main arteries of commerce. Boulaq and Atfeh are the principal places of shipment and landing. The price of transit is subject to many fluctuations, arising not only from the ordinary influences of supply and demand, but from the frequent seizures of boats for the service of government; but of late it has had a considerable tendency to advance. When the French held Egypt, there were but seven hundred boats between Cairo and Syene, and nine hundred on the Rosetta and Damietta branches. In 1833, the government had eight hundred, and private owners, 2,500; and since then they have been much increased in number. The largest boats, called *maashes*, are employed only in the time of the high inundations, and convey from Upper Egypt, each, 1,000 to 1,200 *ardebs* (an *ardeb* is five bushels) of wheat, barley, or pulse. There are about one hundred and twenty large *djermes* which navigate between Alexandria and Rosetta, and are also employed in conveying merchandise from Damietta to the other side of the Boghaz, in order to be shipped on vessels lying out at sea. In the summer these *djermes* go as far as Cyprus and Syria, but are frequently lost.

Between Cairo and Suez, seventy-five to eighty miles, camels are ordinarily used, and pass in two, or, at most, three days. There are now three station-houses, the central one fitted as a hotel; and relays of horses are provided. The journey has been made in twenty-two hours, and once in thirteen. Travelling, here, as elsewhere throughout Egypt, is as safe

* By the improved arrangements, the line of steam communication to Alexandria [from England] is to be every fifteen days, instead of once a month. Besides the iron steamer now plying between Atfeh and Cairo, and a large iron track-boat now on the Mahmoudich canal, another steamer is to ply from Boulaq to Thebes, whence to Cosseir, on the Red Sea, about one hundred miles, a regular conveyance is to be established, in addition to the one between Cairo and Suez. The Suez and India steamers are to touch regularly at Cosseir. A plan is also to be adopted for passing travellers through in time of plague. Every fifteen days a line of large steamers, timed with those that arrive there, is to start from Malta for Athens, Smyrna, the Dardanelles, Constantinople, Sinope, Samsoun, and Trebisonde, returning by the same route to Malta.—*Newspapers of 1841.*

as in any European country. A project has been long entertained of a railroad across; and there is a hard, stony, and level foundation through the whole line, and no engineering difficulties except a few miles of sand immediately out of Cairo, and also just before entering Suez. It was estimated to cost, for a single track, 1,360 pounds sterling, but freights and travel have not yet justified its erection, though several miles of rail were imported for it. These were used, however, for a road to bring stone for the dam before mentioned. The steamers from Suez to India consume 2,700 tons of coal annually, which comes to Suez, through Cairo; and the viceroy has eagerly given indispensable aid, in every way, to the British communications across. This route to India, it may be remarked, offers vast advantages over every other, on all accounts. Could the old port of Pelusium, or some other on the Mediterranean, be found or made fit, a canal (to which no invincible impediments are known) or road directly across the isthmus might again revolutionize the commerce of the east and west, as the passage round the Cape of Good Hope to India consumes thrice the time of that by the Suez route.

The commerce of the Red Sea, laying as it does under obstructing monopolies, has not yet been fully developed; all its ports are occupied by the viceroy, and the coffee trade at Mocha has been much diminished by being taken into the hands of his government; the prices allowed are not remunerating, and its culture is being abandoned. The coffee trade will probably fall into the hands of the British at Aden, on the south coast, unless the system is changed.

There is a daily post between Cairo and Alexandria, and *vice versa*, which conveys letters in from thirty to thirty-six hours, but takes only the despatches of the government, and such as the government (which in that respect is very liberal) takes charge of for individuals. The merchants of Alexandria, however, have a post of their own, which communicates three times a week with Cairo, and which delivers the letters on the fourth day. A line of telegraphs, too, constantly communicates between the two cities, several times a day if needed, and it is not often interrupted by fogs. A regular post is established by the government for communication with all the authorities from one end of Egypt to another; but on especial occasions, messengers are despatched sometimes on dromedaries, which travel at the rate of seven or eight miles an hour, and sometimes letters are sent by messengers on foot. A direct road, which is much wanted, could be constructed with little difficulty over the level lands between Alexandria and Cairo, which, in a straight line, are but about one hundred miles apart.

Weights, Measures, and Currency.—The weights and measures vary in different parts of the country, and some are quite primitive, as the *fitr*, which is the length between the point of the thumb and the fore-finger; the *shibr*, that between the point of the thumb and the little finger. The *dirah beledi*, or cubit of the country, is about $22\frac{1}{2}$ inches, the Indian cubit, 25, and that of Constantinople, $26\frac{1}{2}$. The *feddan* is nearly an acre; the *malakha* varies from 2 to 6 miles. In measures of grain, 4 *rubahs* equal 1 *ouebeh*; 6 *ouebehs*=1 *ardeb*=5 English bushels; the *kunkhah*, or wheat grain= $\frac{3}{4}$ grain English; the *khebbeh*, barley,=1 grain English; the *kirat*, 3 grains; the *dram*, 48 grains; the *rottolo*=15 oz. 13 dr. avoirdupois; the *oke*= $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.; 100 *rottoli*=1 *cantar*=98 $\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.

The coins which have been struck at Cairo are, the *kirieh* of 9 piastres, which weighs $4\frac{1}{2}$ carats, 3 fine gold, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ alloy; the *sadyeh*, 4 piastres,

2 carats, $\frac{2}{3}$ ds. find gold; and gold pieces of 20, 10, and 5 piastres; in silver there are piastres (20 to the dollar) and pieces of 20, 10, and 5 paras; 40 paras go to the piastre; these smaller coins are much adulterated. The coins are dated 1223, i. e. 1808-9, the year of the viceroy's accession, and have the toughra, or cypher, of the sultan.

Accounts are generally kept in piastres (*khirsh*, Arabic) and paras (*fud-dah*, Arabic,) but when the amount is large, the term *kis* (or purse)=500 piastres, or 5 pounds sterling, is employed. The other currency of the country is the Constantinople kirieh of 20 piastres, which circulates at $17\frac{1}{2}$; and the following, which pass at their standard value, viz., Spanish doubloons, Venetian sequins, Dutch ducats, Hungarian sequins, Spanish dollars, Imperial dollars, sovereigns.

PRODUCTS AND MANUFACTURES.

The agricultural products of Egypt, in the latitude of Florida, are wheat, dourah, rice, cotton, tobacco, various pulse, silk, sugar-cane, indigo, the opium plant, olives, roses, dates, plums, oranges, apples, peaches, figs, onions, melons of all kinds, madder, grapes; also, among trees, the acacia, sycamore, acacia nilotria, etl, nebk, doum, date-palm, &c. Besides these, the guava, teak, papaw, yam, and bamboo, have been naturalized in the viceroy's botanic garden on the island Rhoda, near Cairo, and produce fruit. The writer has seen strawberries in the garden of the governor of Rosetta. The arnotta, star-apple, custard-apple, india-rubber tree, turmeric, arrow-root, ginger, cedar, fustic, benzoin, and cajeput, have been acclimated, and grow freely. The allspice and sage-palm live, but do not prosper. Coffee seed was sown in 1830, and several of the plants produced fruit in 1837; but from the extraordinary care required in preserving them, ultimate naturalization is very doubtful.

In 1834 the produce of Egypt was, in thousands of ardebs, wheat, 950, beans, 800, lentils, 70, barley, 560, maize, 160, dourah, 850, chickpeas, 50, lupins, 35, helbeh, (a bitterish seed whose flour is mixed with dourah,) 110, in all 3,585,000 ardebs, each equal 14 Paris bushels, or 1,821 hectolitres; Damietta rice, 18,000,000 Damietta okes, Rosetta rice, 23,870,000 lbs.; sugar, 32,000 cwt.; cotton, (Egyptian quality,) 6,000 cwt., foreign quality, 200,000 cwt.; flax, 55,000 cwt.; indigo, 203,767 lbs.; saffron, 3,500 cwt.; tobacco, 100,000 cwt.; hennah, 30,000; silk, 65,000 okes, i. e. 178,750 lbs., if the oke be taken at $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.; opium, 15,000 okes; linseed, 60,000 ardebs, or 300,000 bushels.

Wheat.—The annual product is 5,000,000 to 10,000,000 bushels, and its price varies from 25 cents to 190 cents per bushel; some twenty-five bushels are grown to the acre. The viceroy has exported in one year 5,000,000 bushels, and estimated that it would, on an average, be profitably produced at 10 cents the bushel. In 1837, considerable grain was imported, and the crop is reduced by cotton growing; but when cotton falls it is increased.

Dourah is produced in considerable quantities in Upper Egypt; its ordinary price is 30 to 40 per cent less than that of wheat. It is more commonly the food of the fellah than any other grain, and is cultivated with much success.

Rice is principally grown in the lower lands of the Delta; the Rosetta district formerly produced 110,000 ardebs, but lately it produced only a tenth as much, though the product is on the increase.

Tobacco is grown to a considerable extent in Middle Egypt; but the quality is inferior, and it is used only for the consumption of the country. Syria supplies most of that used by the opulent classes.

*Cotton.**—Of all Egypt's products, this is incomparably the most important, and its introduction is wholly due to the viceroy's enterprise. The average crop, as regards the relations to foreign countries, fluctuates from 100,000 to 150,000 bales, of about 200 cwt. each, per year; the price varying from \$8 to \$20 per quintal. Years have been when only 50,000 bales were produced. "Cotton is not willingly cultivated by the fellah, and would probably be scarcely produced at all but through the despotic interference of the pacha. When the grower is rich and influential enough to protect himself against the exaction and the dishonesty of the collectors and other agents of the government, cotton production, at the price paid by the viceroy, is profitable; but when the poor fellah is at the mercy of the officers of the state, his situation is frequently most deplorable, and he is pillaged without mercy; often when the cotton he produces is of superior quality, he gets only the ordinary price; he is cheated in weight, and cheated by being kept out of his money; indeed, the functionary too often dreams of nothing but to extort from the suffering fellah whatever he can get hold of." The cotton culture, too, is disliked because it furnishes but one crop, while many other fruits give two or three per annum. The product is 100 to 200 lbs. the acre, on an average, though 700 or 800 might be obtained with proper attention to irrigation and cultivation; 500 would be a fair average production at 200 piastres per cantar. Bowring thinks the cultivator is not badly paid: much, however, depends upon the cost of irrigation, which is the principal expense.†

* The cotton plant, probably producing the famous *byss* of the ancients, has been found wild on the Blue Nile.

† "Generally speaking, the soil of Egypt is favorable to the cultivation of cotton: a strong soil, retaining its humidity, where the tree can become most robust, and in the neighborhood of the Nile, is preferred, not subject to the inundations, however. Dikes are used to preserve the plantations from the flooding. In winter they are watered every fifteen days, in spring (when there are heavy dews) every twelve days, with the *delou* or shadoof; the latter is a balanced pole with a palm-leaf vessel at the end, which is lowered into the well and the water poured through a channel on to the field. In Lower Egypt, the soil is once ploughed; in the Said, twice, if the land is light. Furrows are traced at 50 inches apart, and ploughed to the depth of 36 centimetres, about 12½ inches. The plough is generally, but the hoe is sometimes, used. The ox, buffalo, and ass, are the auxiliaries. The earth, after being ploughed, is broken and levelled by the hoe; holes are made 3 to 4 inches in diameter, in which the seed is placed, 2 to 4 grains in every hole, at a depth of 2 to 3 inches, the grains having been previously steeped twenty-four hours in water. They always sow in March or April. The distance of the cotton-trees one from another is about a metre, (over nine-tenths of a yard.) In the neighborhood of the towns, the spaces are planted with vegetables, &c. The intention of the fellah is always to sow in straight lines, but he seldom succeeds. Sometimes two or three plants grow up together without any disadvantage. The weeds which spring between the trees after the inundation are removed by hand, and at the commencement of winter the plough is employed for it, in large plantations, and the hoe in small ones. This clearing begins when the plant is 3 metres (about 2½ yards) high. The clearing is beneficial to the soil. On the second year the weeding is accomplished by the plough and hoe.

Raw Silk.—This is likely to become an article of great importance. The mulberry trees sprout in January, and are in full leaf the 10th or 18th February. The eggs are hatched in the beginning of March, or earlier, if not kept cold, and in ten days all the worms appear. They are about sixty days before they begin to spin: their first step is twelve days, the second, twelve to fifteen, the third, twelve to fifteen, and the fourth, fifteen. They are only subject to diseases from want of care, epidemic diseases being unknown among them. One ounce of seed gives 7,200 cocoons, each weighing from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 drachm. The eggs are preserved in fresh places, generally in wells; they are deposited by the moths on cloths, from which they are easily rubbed off. They often come forth before the leaves are ready; the grub remains from fifteen to twenty days in the cocoon: 250 to 260 cocoons give 1 lb., of 12 oz., of silk. There are mulberry plantations at Wady Somulat, (Tumulat,) in the province of Sharkiyeh, (the ancient "land of Goshen,") Mansourah, Menouf, Garbyeih, Kaloubeyeh, Damietta, Rosetta, and Ghizeh; 3,000 feddans in Wady Tumulat, and 7,000 in the other districts, set with mulberry-trees, 300 trees occupying a feddan. In 1831-2, the quantity of silk produced was 6,708 okes, 406 drms., (between 18,000 and 19,000 lbs.); in 1833, it was 5,300 okes; the fellah was provided with the eggs, at $1\frac{1}{2}$ piastres per drachm, and the vice-roy paid for the silk, 125 piastres for the first quality, 95 for the second, and 85 for the third, delivered at Cairo. The cultivation of the mulberry is extending; and though Egypt now imports some raw silk, there is no reason why it should not become a largely exporting country of this valuable material.

Sugar.—This cultivation has of late assumed considerable importance, and will no doubt spread rapidly. On Rhoda island, Ibrahim Pacha's plantation occupies 272 feddans, and 750 harvesters were employed at $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents per day. The gathering and sugar making occupies two months; the produce is 2,750 lbs. per feddan, but with better machinery the overseer

The growth of the plant is from 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ metres (9-10ths to 1 4-10ths yards) the first year, less in the second or third. The cotton-tree is pruned with a sort of hook so closely, that all the branches are lopped and used as firewood. The fellahs in Upper Egypt, who have no instrument, break them off, which does not injure the tree. The pruning is less in the first year than in the second and third, and much strengthens the tree. Formerly there were trees half a century old, but after three years the produce diminishes; and generally speaking, is 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. the first, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ the second and third year. The harvest begins in July and ends in January; or in December, if the weather is wet. A laborer can gather 15 to 18 lbs. per day, and cultivates 4 feddans with 1,000 trees, each; but for removing the cotton from the capsules the assistance of children is called in. The cotton is separated by a simple machine, moved by the foot, consisting of two cylinders: a workman can separate from 12 to 15 lbs. per day. When the fellah is a small cultivator, he himself separates the cotton; when a large one, he employs laborers at 5 francs per 120 lbs. Nothing is done for cleansing the cotton after its separation from the husks. It is put into bales in a dirty and peppery state; sometimes, but rarely, a fellah pays attention to the cleanness of his cotton. For packing, only the pressure of the foot was employed formerly; of late the American press has been introduced. Of them there are six at Boulaq, with three hands each, who pack 18 to 20 bales per day of 100 kilograms. The bales are 1 metre high, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ in diameter."

thought he could obtain 3,000.* Its value is 95 to 100 piastres per 100 lbs.=4½ to 5 cents the pound. Another return gave for 152 feddans, 40,100 lbs. of sugar, and 44,930 of molasses, being about 2,600 lbs. of sugar and 2,900 of molasses to the feddan. A sugar refinery was established at Reyremoun, in 1818; in 1831 it produced 11,000 quintals. They buy first quality raw sugar at 60 piastres per quintal; second quality, 58; third quality, 34 to 40. The first quality refined, called moukarar, sold at 300 piastres per quintal of 100 rottoli (of 144 drachms each)=26½ cts. per lb.; the second quality, called kasr, at half that price. In 1837, the expense of a feddan in Ibrahim's plantation, was 2,202 piastres, 20 paras; and the sugar produced was worth 5,429 piastres, 2 paras; thus the net proceeds were £32 sterling per feddan.

Rum.—Some attempts have been made to introduce its manufacture into the sugar districts of Ibrahim, and its quality is fair. He lately sent an intelligent Mahometan, Omer Effendi, to the West Indies to examine into the process, in order to introduce the best methods; and he has made arrangements with persons thoroughly masters of the subject to quit the British colonies, and establish themselves in Egypt, and there is little doubt that the production will largely increase.

Molasses.—In 1831, 14,000 quintals were distilled. 1 quintal gives 10 okes of rum of 28 degrees. The cost is 11 piastres for manufacturing; 15 piastres is the first cost of the molasses. The rum is sold at 182 piastres per quintal of 36 okes; the expenses of management are 20 per cent.

Indigo might be cultivated to a large extent. The leaves are thrown into earthen vessels, which are buried in pits and filled with water; heat is applied, and the liquid is boiled away until the indigo becomes of a fit consistence, when it is pressed into shape and dried. Many Armenians have been invited from the East Indies to teach the fellahs the best mode

* "The sugar is thrice boiled; the crushing wheels are moved by oxen, and fill fourteen to sixteen vessels containing about four cantars altogether, in the twenty-four hours. The works proceed night and day; and when the laborers are weary, and take their rest, they are replaced by others. Most of the pans employed are of coarse earthenware, manufactured on the spot. The canes grow to a great height, and are large in diameter: fifteen persons supply one mill, and when they have completed their work, they leave off without any reference to the time they have been occupied. Independently of the men, a considerable number of boys and girls are employed, and their wages are from 10 to 25 paras per day, 1½ to 3½ cents; the government lets them buy bread at 1½ cents per oke, instead of its cost from the baker, which is 2½ cents; and at this rate they are allowed to purchase one oke per day, which is deducted from their wages, though they would willingly buy more. Many negro children were working among the laborers; they get no other recompense than being allowed to carry away a certain quantity of the upper parts of the cane, which they use for their cattle. The finest lump sugar sells at 7½d. sterling, per pound. 2d. a day is the average price of labor in these districts. At this very low rate of wages, there was no difficulty in getting hands, though they were not protected from conscription; indeed, to avoid this, most of the workmen on the plantation had mutilated themselves of an eye, or a right hand fore-finger, or the front teeth, which would disable from musket exercise. The cane is found to exhaust even the rich soil of Egypt, and it was necessary frequently to shift the place of production. Cheap river conveyance adds to the profit. For sugar, cotton, rum, indigo, indeed, the facilities in Egypt are boundless."

of preparation, and, in consequence, nine indigo-works have been established, belonging to the government, each directed by a nazir, charged with paying the workmen, and sending the indigo to a general depot at Cairo, where it is sold for the Turkish and European markets. The quantity varies from 41,250 to 220,000 lbs. per annum.

Opium.—Armenians were invited from Smyrna some years ago to cultivate it. At the end of October, after the withdrawal of the Nile waters, the seed, mixed with a portion of pulverized earth, is sown in a strong soil, in furrows; after fifteen days the plant springs up, and in two months has the thickness of a Turkish pipe, and a height of four feet; the stalk is covered with long, oval leaves, and the fruit, which is greenish, resembles a small orange. Every morning before sunrise, in its progress to maturity, small incisions are made in the sides of the fruit, from which a white liquor distils almost immediately, which is collected in a vessel; it soon becomes black and thickish, and is rolled into balls, which are covered with the washed leaves of the plant; in this state it is sold. When the seed is sown in non-inundated ground, the sakiah or water-wheel is employed; but the produce is less and inferior. The opium seeds are crushed for lamp-oil, and the plant is used for fuel. In 1831, 39,875 lbs. were produced, and sold at 110 piastres per oke=\$2 a pound.

Olive oil.—Dr. Bowring remarks, "There is not a large extraction of vegetable oils in Egypt; olive plantations are extending considerably; the fruit is large but not sufficiently unctuous to be very productive. In the Fayoum district, however, [lat. $29\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$] the olive answers well, and the peasantry willingly engage in its cultivation. The last estimate I obtained represented the produce to be 100 ardebs of olives, each of 100 okes, the oke rendering 30 per cent of oil. But since that period, large quantities of trees have been planted, and it is estimated that the increase in the Fayoum is more than threefold. In both Upper and Lower Egypt, the olive has been extensively introduced. Ibrahim has planted multitudes of trees, and they have succeeded tolerably well. The quality of the fruit in his plantations is good. I saw them prepared in different ways; and the steward expressed an opinion that, in a few years, oil might become an important article of produce; its consumption for burning is very great, not only on extraordinary occasions, when illuminations take place on the most extensive scale, but for the ordinary purposes of life."

Natron.—The lakes which furnish the natrum, or mineral alkali, are S. by E. of Alexandria, about twelve hours from any inhabited spot. A succession of experiments have led to the production of a very pure material, which is said to have many advantages over the best potashes. Carbonate of soda has been purified in the proportion of ninety to seventeen of the old natron of commerce. About three hundred persons are employed, and the carbonates of soda yield ninety to ninety-five degrees of alkali.

Rose-water.—Fayoum is the land of rose-trees. In May, the soil is twice turned up, divided into squares, and slips are then planted in holes at a distance of $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The slips are covered with earth, which is kept constantly humid, till the trees appear above ground, when the irrigation is lessened, and the trees reach their natural height of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet. At the end of December the shoots are cut at the surface of the ground, irrigation being recommenced for thirty to forty days, being the time necessary for the budding and blowing of the flower. The roses are gathered every morning before sunrise, while covered with dew; they are placed

in an alembic ere they dry or heat, and the distillation lasts six hours. The water is white when drawn from the alembic ; that offered for sale is generally *yellowed* by a mixture of water from roses which have been infused. A feddan gives from 6 to 7 quintals of roses. In 1832, 800 quintals were collected ; reduced half by distillation, they gave 40,000 rottoli (39,531½ lbs.) of rose-water. A feddan planted with rose-trees, costs 60 piastres for culture and taxes, and gives 3 quintals, which give 300 rottoli, which, at 3 piastres, produce 900 piastres net. But no person is allowed to distil roses for his own account, and those who cultivate them are obliged to sell them to the government. Its manufacture is now very small. Of fine rose-water, a small quantity is made for the use of the government ; but that produced for sale is of little value and of indifferent character. The monopoly has nearly destroyed the culture. *Oil of roses* is not manufactured in the Fayoum, though, were the culture free, it could compete in its produce of this article, with any part of the east. But now, each person is interested in having as few rose-trees as possible.

Dates.—This is one of the most productive and extensively cultivated of fruits. It is spread over all Egypt, is a great source of revenue to government, (2,000,000 trees, paying 1 piastre per tree,) and administers by its fruit, trunk, branches, leaves, and fibres, to the comforts of the natives, far more than any other product of the soil. As a source of landed revenue it is highly lucrative. A proprietor planted 5,000 trees, which, after eight years, had produced yearly fruit of the average value of from \$2 to \$4 per tree.

Madder is produced in Middle Egypt, to some extent, for the consumption of the country, principally for dyeing the tarbouche, or skull-caps, which are universally worn. Its culture was introduced in 1825. In 1833, 300 feddans in Upper Egypt, and 500 in the Delta and the Kelyoub, were devoted to madder roots.

Wines.—Egypt was never celebrated for its wines, though it produced the grape ; and wine-presses, &c., are seen pictured on its ancient monuments. Herodotus says, it produced no wine in his time. Ibrahim and others have made attempts with the vine, and some tolerably good wine has been made. The white wine resembles Marsala, though it is not equal to it in quality ; the red is somewhat similar to the common wine of Spain.

Trees.—Egypt's indigenous trees are few. 1. The acacia (lebbek) has a fine foliage ; the heart of the trunk, which is black, is employed in wheel-making and sakias : the white part of the trunk easily decays. 2. The sycamore (gimmis) is knotty, and not easily split ; it is much used in the construction of sakiahs, and is very durable. Its fruits grow from the trunk, but do not ripen unless cut. 3. The acacia nilotria (saat) is used for hedges and enclosures ; also, for boat-building on the Nile, for sakiahs, and for charcoal. Its gum is extracted in Upper Egypt ; and boats made of it come down the Nile from Senaar, for sale. Its fruit, called karat, is used for tanning, and it completely impregnates the leather in forty days ; so tanned, the leather resists heat admirably, but not humidity. 4. The etl is a tree of light wood, which flourishes with so small a quantity of water, as to grow on the skirts of the desert. Its appearance resembles the cypress. 5. The nebk has a fruit resembling olives ; its wood is of various use. 6. The doum (hyphæne coriacea) is a dichotomous palm ; the wood is used for sakiahs ; it is fibrous, and not easily split. 7. The date-palm (phœnix dactilifera) is the most common and useful of Egyptian

trees. It is easily propagated by the offshoots from the roots. Of its leaves, brooms and brushes are made; the fruit is of universal consumption; the trunk is used for house-building, and many other purposes; and, of the *lif*, by which the branches are bound together, all sorts of cordage is made, and it is an article of great consumption; that of the Fayoum is particularly fine. The government had fixed a price, for the delivery of the *lif*, of 22 piastres per cantar; but as this would scarcely pay the cost and trouble of collecting, the peasants would not bring it in; the government then offered 35 piastres, and the fellahs now occupied themselves diligently in its collection.

Onions.—The production and consumption is very large, far larger than of *potatoes*; which, indeed, do not succeed well in the rich, alluvial soil. The ordinary price of onions is about 1*s.* the cwt., but, from the general deficiency of food, this was trebled in 1837. An opulent family will use nearly two tons a year.

Horticulture.—Much has been done for this; many of the gardens are beautiful and rich; the most striking are in care of Europeans; that of Ibrahim, in the island of Rhoda, is the most attractive; it employs one hundred and twenty people, averaging 2½*d.* per day, and covers forty acres. Horticulture in Egypt is scarcely distinguishable from agriculture; but, though Ibrahim has been very willing gratuitously to distribute seeds, plants, and trees from his own garden, the cases are rare in which any attention has been paid to them by receivers. And it may here be remarked that there is even here resistance: a resistance, by the way, not peculiar to Egypt, to the introduction of improved modes and utensils. The same old plough, the same rude tools are used now as were used a hundred generations ago; and though in the model-farms established by the government the best instruments are used, the influence of these establishments has hitherto been small.

Saltpetre is made in abundance from the ruins of the ancient towns; water is impregnated with the rubbish, in which there is a large quantity of nitre, and being subject to evaporation by the sun's rays, the saltpetre is deposited, and collected and sent to central magazines for the examination of its quality. The six saltpetre works, produced in 1831, 19,500 cantars; in 1833, 15,784; in 1837, 20 to 22,000; the establishments have been augmented, and with those now in progress, will produce, say 40,000 cantars. The refining has been much improved, and the impurity in the best is said not to be more than one-three-thousandth; that for sale has 6 to 7 per cent; the refining by solar heat, (invented by M. Baffi,) leaves about 30 per cent, and the process is then carried farther by chemical art. After the nitre has been extracted, the ruins become saturated again in a few years, and on passing through the pans, deposit almost as much as before.

Gunpowder.—The manufactory is at the extremity of Rhoda island, and under charge of a Frenchman, with ninety workmen, and ten mills, which turn out fifty cwt. per day; and during the Syrian war, eighty cantars per day were produced.

Lime.—For many years the stones of some of the finest temples have been used, but this is now put a stop to, and the pits are furnished from different lime quarries on the banks of the Nile. The price of lime delivered at Cairo, was 32*s.* per ton.

Salt.—The consumption is considerable, and strange means are used

to get it. At Abydos the Arabs open the mummies, take out the inner parts, which they put into water, and say they furnish excellent salt; sometimes they get it from the sand in which the mummies lie. In some spots, remote from the Nile, a sandstone impregnated with salt is found; and the stones are broken up and soaked in water, and the water evaporated by the sun.

Earthenware.—The manufacture is considerable, principally at Kenh, whence immense quantities of bardaks and koolehls are sent down the Nile. They are very various in shape, and famous for their cooling properties. The consumption has ever been immense, as the vast mounds of earthenware shards testify. Rafts are often met on the Nile covered with huge masses of pottery. The potters' wheel is of the simplest construction, and has probably undergone no change from the patriarchal times.

Manufactures.—Their cost is not easy to estimate; their management is expensive and bad, as a thoughtful and provident spirit is lamentably and universally wanting in Oriental countries. "When it is necessary to compete with the complicated machinery of European industry, and to call in the multitudinous auxiliaries which art, and science, and capital, and free institutions, and active communications have brought to bear upon manufacturing improvements, it is not to be wondered at, that Oriental countries should be left in arrear, and be wholly unable to sustain themselves against the rivalry of so much intelligence, and activity, and opulence." Indeed, the viceroy of Egypt allowed that it was rather for the purpose of accustoming the people to manufacture, than for any profit which he expected, that he continued his manufacturing operations. The Arabs are clever and ready under the guidance of superior knowledge, but are far from being able to guide large concerns. "Notwithstanding the very cheap rates of labor, on an average less than 2½d., say 4½ to 5 cents per day,—notwithstanding the low price of the raw material, such is the waste and mismanagement, such the want of a directing and combining intellectual capacity, such the carelessness of the operative, and such the irregularities of the whole system, that the productions, when completed, are very expensive, and might, in almost every instance, have been bought in Europe for 20 or 30 per cent less than their cost in Egypt. With a few exceptions," adds Mr. Bowring, "the progress made has been small; the eminently costly attempts have added nothing to the resources of the country, while the same amount of capital and labor, applied to agricultural objects, would have deposited large returns of profit; the loss, however, falls wholly on the treasury, and not on the consumer."—"Foreign manufactures come into the country on the payment of a nominal 3 per cent, but really considerably less, and the goods manufactured by the pacha must, of course, be sold as low as those of Europe;" while "cotton manufactures, which are the principal articles produced in the viceroy's factories, cost him more than the imported article, though it is not easy to estimate the actual cost to him." Yet Dr. B. allows that the importation of cotton cloths has been injured, that "England sends them less frequently, especially cloths of low quality; and India muslins, formerly so much used, are now scarcely at all sent to Egypt since muslins have been woven in the new factories." The views, therefore, of an agent, of monopolizing England, as to *foreign manufactures*, are, we suspect, to be weighed with caution, before we decide with Dr. B., that Egyptian manufactures have been "eminently unsuccessful;" but we

have no other data of information than he gives us, and these do not reach the present time.

Cotton factories.—In 1829 there were at Kerum-fitch, in Cairo, besides smiths, whitesmiths, turners in iron and wood, joiners, who mend machines, and makers of articles relating to machinery, 100 mule jennies, (10 for coarse, and 90 for fine spinning,) 370 cards, and 300 looms for weaving cotton cloth, muslins, and cambric. At Malta, in Boulaq, were 28 spinning jennies, 24 carding machines, 200 looms, also a bleaching and a printing establishment, turning out 800 printed calicoes a month. "Four others have been established at Chalan, at Chebyn, at Mahal-el-Kebir, and at Mansoura." At Malta, also, was a manufacture of printed head handkerchiefs, using 400 pieces of muslin a month. The cotton thread was exported to Trieste, Leghorn, and the Turkish ports. Besides these manufactories, there are workmen of every profession to repair and put together the machines, &c., destined for the manufactures of Upper and Lower Egypt, 28 forges, &c., &c., shops for engravers on wood and rollers, also finishing presses, &c., tin plate workers and plumbers, also a foundry. Near Malta are two establishments with 90 spinning jennies, and 60 carding machines. At Kalich-el-Kessah, near the citadel of Cairo, is a large establishment like that of Malta, with a foundry, mechanics shops, &c., and 220 looms; near by, 20 spinning jennies, 28 carding machines, 300 looms. At Kelioub, the chief town of the province of Zelioubek, are manufactured in a large establishment, spinning jennies, carding machines, and looms; a foundry is attached, and 70 spinning jennies are in use. At Chebin village, in Menouf province, are 70 spinning jennies, and 30 carding machines. At Mahaleh-el-Kebir, are 120 jennies, 60 cards, and 200 looms, also a machine shop, &c. At Kephtah, in Gharbyeh province, are 76 jennies, and 50 cards, with their necessary accompaniments; and at Mit Ghaur, as many more, which were continually augmented in number. At Mansoura were 120 jennies, 80 cards, and 200 looms, a foundry, turner's shop, forges, and iron-workers, and a spinning-machine shop; also at Damietta, the same number of all. At Damanhour are 100 jennies, and 80 carding machines; at Foua, 75 jennies and 40 cards, also a manufactory of caps. At Rousti are 150 jennies and 80 cards. In Upper Egypt are many factories; one at Benisouef had 120 jennies, and 70 cards; another at Es-Siont, of the same number. Besides these, cotton factories were established at seven other towns. There are in the cotton factories, or were in 1829, 1,459 jennies in use, 145 for coarse, and 1,019 for fine spinning; the first gave 14,500 rottoli a day in summer, and 10,150 in winter; the last, 13,140 in summer, and 8,540 in winter. The looms, to the number of 1,215, gave in winter 3,645 pikes,* (beladi,) and 6,075 in summer. There were 1,200 oxen, which gave the power, and 31,000 workmen, in the factories, with 40,000 employed in raising new buildings.

In 1839 the cotton factory at Kenah had 30 jennies, 120 looms, employed 1,000 workmen, and produced, per month, 1,300 pieces of calico, 20 pikes long and $1\frac{1}{2}$ wide; and 300 of 32 pikes long and 2 wide, selling at 27 and 52 piastres per piece. The material is of the finest quality, and the sale very ready. The average wages was 5 cents per day, while

* A pike of Egypt equals 6,770 ten-thousandths of a metre. In Syria, 100 pikes= 130 yards.

field labor was $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents. The building cost \$45,000. The looms are peculiar: the workman is seated in a hole in the ground, and the warp is suspended from a considerable height above him. The cloths thus manufactured are blue check garments, such as are used by the Arabs as a sort of toga, sometimes with and sometimes without a mixture of silk. The pieces are 6 pikes in length, 2 in width, and two pieces are woven together broadways to make a garment: price, 46 piastres. The English have not succeeded in imitating them, and the native article is much preferred.

The factories deteriorate as one advances into the interior. In that of Esneh, for instance, the *whip* is perpetually used, and the director said he could do nothing without it; 500 are employed, of whom 200 are Coptic Christians.

The qualities of cotton used in the viceroy's factories are 4; for the 1st quality, the factories are charged 6,000 paras per cantar; and it must yield, of twist delivered in the hank, $113\frac{1}{2}$ rottoli per cantar; 5,000 paras for the 2d quality, to yield $110\frac{1}{2}$ rottoli; for the 3d, 4,000 paras, to yield 109; for the 4th, 3,000 paras, to yield $107\frac{1}{2}$; thus, the waste may be seen. 30,000 cantars per annum of cotton are consumed, and it is principally spun in low numbers, from No. 10 to 25; two-thirds of it is woven in the country, and one-third exported at 15 piastres per oke. The Arabs, if brought young to the fabrics, are generally found to be of a quick intellect, and easily learn any branch of the trade they are put to.

Silk Factory.—This was established near Cairo, at Birket-el-fyl; the viceroy having procured some Armenians from Constantinople, capable of making silk, and gold and silk stuffs, such as are made there and in India. It was successful, and had, in 1829, 160 looms for weaving silk from Beyroot thread of gold and cotton, and used 60,000 okes of silk, for goods of all kinds and prices. The work was paid by the piece, was well done, the stuff carefully woven, the patterns tasteful, the colors generally brilliant, but not so fast as those of India.

Woollen Factory.—In 1818, the viceroy erected an immense building at Boulaq for woollen cloths; and in 1829 there were 100 engines, with mules, carding machines, &c., 25 of which were in use. The Egyptian wool is not fit for any fine cloth, the nitrous dust with which it is impregnated, making it hard and dry. The sheep are shorn but once a year, and their fleeces are not washed before shearing, which deteriorates the wool; during some time they are filled with a kind of moth, which nothing can remove; two-thirds of the wool is wasted before it is fit to weave up; yet it appears that cloth woven from this wool is very suitable to clothe the soldiers—and this is the chief object of the factory—as the fabric is strong, closely woven, and well made. The value is from 10 to 12 piastres, according to quality. In 1839, there were 100 looms, producing 160 pieces per month, at a cost of 8 piastres, 7 paras, per pike. At each loom one man is employed in weaving, the other in mending the thread. There are 9 sets of carding and spinning machines. The coarse cloths woven for soldiers' capotes at Damanhour, are finished at Boulaq. The Boulaq cloths are used for the army.

Tarboushes.—The manufactory of these red caps at Fouah, produces, on an average, from ten to twelve dozen per day, though they can make sixty dozen. They are used only for the army. The quality is excellent, equal to those of Tunis, which fetch in market about 30 piastres each, say

a dollar and a half. The wool is brought to the factory from Alicante, at 25 and 30 piastres the oke. It is not washed; eight ounces of oil are used per rottoli. The tarboushes are fulled for three days and nights in hot water, and at the end soft soap is introduced. They are dyed with kermes, gall nuts, and alum, and cost 17 piastres each.

Carpets have been manufactured for account of the viceroy from English patterns, and by people educated in England. The cost is considerably above English prices; but the viceroy thinks he can in a few years produce them as cheap, which is disputed.

Iron foundries, &c.—The foundry, building at Boulaq, cost 1,500,000 francs; and the annual cost, exclusive of interest, is 10,000 to 11,000 piastres. Besides the English superintendent and native comptroller, with his two Coptic assistants, there are employed five Englishmen, three Maltese, and forty Arabs; and they can cast 50 cwt. of melted iron per day, employing 50 cwt. of coal. There is great waste of metal from mismanagement. The wages vary from 5 to 40 cents per day.

In the *manufacture of arms*, at the citadel of Cairo, the daily production averages 24 to 25 muskets, with bayonets; cannons, 3 to 4 per month; sabres, 20 per day; knapsacks, 200 to 280 per day. With the establishments of Houd-el-Marsout, in the town of Cairo, and of Boulaq, there can easily be produced 1,000 muskets per month, costing, on an average, 125 piastres=\$6½ each. The Boulaq establishment is chiefly for repairs. In case of *necessity*, 3,000 muskets a month might be made. In the *Cairo arsenal*, 9 brass cannon were founded and turned monthly.

Fisheries.—That of Lake Karoun and of the Canal Joseph, is farmed for only \$2,500 per annum; but that of Lake Menzaleh, produces to the state more than \$62,500.

The *Revenues* of the viceroy, from all sources, are 900,000 purses, equal to \$22,500,000. In 1833, the revenue was very much less. The viceroy stated, that he had expended \$60,000,000 in attempts to introduce European improvements. "The profits, great as they are, which the government obtains as the general cultivator, the extensive merchant, and the large manufacturer, after all the deductions are made which an irregular, imperfect, complicated, untrustworthy, and costly machinery of management necessarily entail, are far less than would be deposited by the simpler and safer process of direct taxation." Egypt has no national debt; nor are any of the state funds devoted to religious establishments. Her export and import commerce, is said to amount to 100,000,000 of francs.

TRADE OF ALEXANDRIA.

"The ports of *Damietta* and *Rosetta*, would, by their position on the two mouths of the Nile, seem to offer great advantages to trade; but the badness of their harbors and the facility now given by the Mahmoudich canal to Alexandria, have caused a gradual declension of their trade. That which exists, is mainly with Syria, Cyprus, and Candia. English vessels seldom enter; though now and then, one from the Ionian islands, enters Damietta." In 1823, the exports of Damietta amounted to \$381,170, and her imports to \$867,000; in 1824, to \$628,500, against \$822,000; in 1825, to \$311,800 exports, against \$246,000 imports. Rice is the chief article of export, but its cultivation is much on the decline.

The trade of *Cairo* is much diminished; though it still has 24 Turkish foreign merchants, 15 European houses, 10 Catholic, and 6 Schismatic

Greeks. The nominal period of credit, is four months ; though, as the rate of interest is high, 24 per cent and money scarce, it is frequently extended to six or eight. Acceptances for goods, payable at a given epoch, are little in use. Diamonds are generally adopted as a security deposit. The demand for articles of luxury has much abated from poverty. Of late, considerable exports of diamonds and precious stones have gone from Cairo to Calcutta, and other parts of the East Indies.

Cairo has ceased to be a depot, as it formerly was, both for articles of export and import. Alexandria, from the greater facilities its position gives, has supplanted it in importance, and it is now a great market only for *gums* and some other secondary articles. Its stock of manufactures, are principally for the consumption of the place ; the buyers for the interior finding it more advantageous to supply themselves from the warehouses of the importers at Alexandria.

Alexandria.—The inhabitants of Alexandria, are calculated by the best informed authorities, at about 60,000 ; of whom 8,000 are military and naval troops, and 3,000 artisans employed in the arsenal. The average mortality, per year, is $7\frac{2}{3}$ ths per cent. A very great proportion of the trade of Egypt centres here, and to it, European exports are mostly confined.

For late years we have no accurate statistics of Egyptian exports and imports ; but in 1823, the value of imports from Europe was 2,888,552 Spanish dollars, 131,222 of which was from England, 300,117 from the Adriatic, 504,690 from Turkey in Europe, but the largest amount, 769,801 dollars, was from Leghorn. The exports to Europe, &c., in the same year, were worth 5,518,870 Spanish dollars, of which, 186,439 went to Britain, 593,286 to Marseilles, 736,721 to Syria, 949,520 to Leghorn ; but the highest amount was 1,252,676 to Constantinople. The total amount of exports to the whole world, was 7,276,000 dollars, and of imports, 3,282,450. In 1824, the exports=£10,636,529, viz. : to France, 2,239,000 ; England, 1,945,000 ; Levant and Ionian isles, 1,911,000 ; Tuscany, 1,178,000 ; Constantinople, 1,046,000 ; Austria, 1,006,000 ; Syria, 762,000 ; Sardinia, 283,500 ; Barbary States, 130,000 ; Spain and Portugal, 47,000 ; Holland, 45,300 ; Russia, 38,000. The imports in 1824=£5,043,000, viz. : from France, 1,583,000 ; Austria, 747,000 ; Tuscany, 693,000 ; Syria, 522,000 ; Levant and Ionian isles, 414,000 ; Constantinople, 346,000 ; Barbary States, 292,000 ; Sardinia, 47,500 ; Russia, 36,800 ; Spain and Portugal, 2,500 ; Holland, 1,300. In 1826, the exports=£7,276,002, viz. : to the Levant and Ionian isles ; 1,702,000 ; Constantinople, 1,252,000 ; Austria, 957,000 ; Tuscany, 949,000 ; Syria, 662,000 ; England, 623,700 ; France, 593,000 ; Sardinia, 275,000 ; Barbary States, 137,000 ; Spain and Portugal, 97,500 ; Russia, 14,000 ; Holland, 11,300. The imports in 1826,=£3,282,451 viz. : from Tuscany, 759,000 ; England, 614,000 ; Levant and Ionian isles, 567,000 ; Austria, 456,000 ; France, 293,000 ; Constantinople, 212,000 ; Sardinia, 158,000 ; Syria, 117,000 ; Barbary States, 51,000 ; Spain and Portugal, 14,000 ; and from Russia, 7,800 dollars' worth.

In 1831, the exports from Alexandria=41,251,443 piastres, to wit : sundries, to the value of 7,904,058 ; cotton wool, 15,031,254 ; drygoods, 6,444,235 ; rice, 2,215,902 ; gum, 2,194,023 ; linen, 1,587,775 ; skins, 960,238 ; incense, 811,911 ; flax, 631,162 ; cotton twist, 524,062 ; linseed, 483,202 ; sennah, 443,451 ; corn, 432,432 ; elephants' teeth, 429,525 ; saffron, 290,965 ; coffee, 256,030 ; mother of pearl, 174,970 ;

tamarinds, 172,028 piastres' worth. Of these exports, 13,730,663 piastres' worth went to Turkey; 10,370,411 to Austria; 5,573,656 to England; 4,798,119 to Tuscany; 4,624,787 to France; 1,182,646 to Malta; 524,866 to Greece.

In 1831, the imports to Alexandria=39,200,499 piastres, to wit: sundries, to the value of 10,920,895; wood, from Turkey and Austria, 8,257,589; cotton goods, chiefly from Tuscany, (which sent half,) Austria, England, and Turkey, 8,153,525; silk goods, mostly from Turkey, 3,264,448; iron, in bars, &c., from England, (nearly half,) Malta, and Austria, chiefly, 2,773,805; woollens, chiefly from Turkey, 912,000; tarboushes, chiefly from Turkey, 827,696; cloths, chiefly from Austria and France, 816,103; paper, 517,929; sugar, nearly all from France, 482,993; wines and spirits, half from France, 434,300; lead, 295,100; glass, mostly from Austria, 226,353; cochineal, 153,881; nails, 141,325; linens, 140,700; pitch, 93,569; spices, 56,300 piastres' worth. Of these imports, there came to the value of 18,218,927 piastres from Turkey; 7,105,825 from Austria; 6,661,879 from Tuscany; 3,172,381 from England; 2,225,544 from France; 214,654 from Greece; 157,440 from Sardinia; 109,640 from Sweden.

Of Cotton, Egypt exported in 1822, 541 bales; 1823, 18,069; 1824, 148,276; 1825, 137,677; 1826, 124,585; 1827, 123,215; 1828, 94,427; 1829, 48,887; 1830, 45,729; 1831, 127,024; 1832, 111,953; 1833, 83,712; 1834, 33,251; 1835, 98,502; 1836, 114,051; and in 1837, 136,697 bales. Of which, 56,169 went to Trieste; 42,495 to England; 35,955 to Marseilles; 725 to Leghorn; 680 to Russia; 660 to Genoa; and 3 to sundry other ports.

The mercantile *shipping* belonging to the port of Alexandria, consisted, in 1838, of 16 vessels, of from 100 to 300 tons, with crews of 9 to 18 men. The viceroy also allotted a frigate and 5 disarmed ships of 400 to 600 tons, with 18 to 20 transports of smaller burden, for the accommodation of the trade with Syria, Candia, and the neighboring ports. The export trade to Europe is almost exclusively in European bottoms.

In 1825, there arrived at the port, 710 vessels; of which, 258 were Austrian, and 166 English; and there departed, 812 sail; of which, 319 were Austrian, and 195 English. In 1826, 698 (352 Austrian, 117 English, 79 French,) arrived; and 678 left. In 1836, arrivals, 580, viz.: 154 Greek, 101 English, 92 Austrian, 78 French, 76 Syrian, 27 Russian, 20 Sardinian, 16 Tuscan, 9 Ionian, 6 Dutch, 1 Swedish; departures, 441. In 1837, arrivals, 523, viz.: Greek 129, English 106, Austrian 86, Syrian 78, French 75, Russian 21, Tuscan 14, Sardinian 11, Ionian 3; departures, 379.

Tribunal of Commerce.—One was established about 1828, for trying commercial causes between foreigners and natives, in which the latter are defendants; it has 8 judges, viz.: 2 Europeans, 2 Levantine Christians, and 4 Mahometans. The natives are also obliged to have recourse to this tribunal for the settlement of their commercial differences; but the Meke-meh is the superior court in civil causes.

Exchanges.—On London, in 1838, 74 to 75 piastres; Marseilles, 5.10 to 5.15; Leghorn, 123 soldi per dr.; Trieste, 122½ to 123; Cairo, 1 per cent.

Money value.—Constantinople kires, new, 18½ piastres, old, ¾; guineas, 97½; pillar dollars, 20¼; dollars, 20¼; American dollars, 19; se-

quins, Venice, 46½; Dutch and Hungarian, 45½; doubloons, 319; five-frances, 19½; napoleons, 77½.

The number of *merchants* in Alexandria, is 72; of whom, 11 are English, 14 French, and 13 Greek.

Prices of Labor.—In Lower Egypt, in 1838, masons earned 15 to 35 cents per day; masons' laborers, 7½ to 12½; carpenters, 20 to 45; blacksmiths, 15 to 30; porters, 10 to 20; house servants, 10 to 15; gardeners, 15 to 20; agricultural laborers, 7½ to 10.

Duties.—"The capitulations with the Porte, which establish an import and export duty of 3 per cent on articles coming from or shipped to Europe, are the groundwork of the custom-house legislation in Egypt; but the provisions of the capitulations had become, in most parts of the Turkish dominions, a dead letter, by the imposition of inland duties, and the sale of privileges or *teskeres*; and the period for the tariff itself (which was the application of the capitulations to the various articles of commerce) has been for several years overrun. The capitulations, however, have continued for the most part in operation; the principal apparent departure from them, being in the articles of wines and spirits, a question now long at issue between Egypt and France." "Generally speaking, there are few complaints of the amount of the duties in Egypt, or the manner in which they are levied. British merchants pass their goods at their own valuation, and it is very rarely that a question arises as to the sum of duty with which they ought to be charged; and I am assured that it is seldom that a bale of merchandise is opened, in order to verify the statements of any respectable European importer."

Dr. Bowring further remarks: "The character of English merchants and English merchandise, throughout the east, is very high. 'An English word,' represents a promise to be fulfilled; and 'English manufacture,' is considered a warranty of superiority. Indeed, English commodities sell generally in the Levant for something more than their average comparative value."

"As the garments of the East, particularly those worn by women, are generally costly, they are much less frequently renewed than in Europe; and the fluctuations of fashion are small. Even among the opulent, the wedding garments of the bride are sometimes used for several generations. There is, however, a general tendency in the Levant, to the employment of costumes less adorned and costly, than in former days. The beauty, variety, and economy of the manufactures of Europe, have gradually intruded upon the heavy oriental silks and cloth of gold, the shawls of Cashmere, the splendid robes of Constantinople and Syria. Among men, the introduction of the Nizam dress has superseded, by garments of European cloth, the use of the long flowing robes, which were generally made (the inner robe always) of the silks of the East. The silk sash, which forms a necessary part of the Nizam costume, is the only portion of it now furnished by the oriental looms." "The fellahs are wretchedly clad, and their gains, whether as cultivators or laborers, only just serve to provide them with food and the meanest garments. Now and then, women are seen with ornaments of the precious metals; but, generally speaking, the fellah population stands on the verge of the extremest poverty."

"There is an increasing demand for the silk goods of Switzerland, and a decreasing demand for those of France; the articles principally sought for are Gros de Naples, lustrings, &c. The sale of cloth is lessened;

this is attributable to the diminished wealth and diminished numbers of the consumers. The principal demand is for white cottons, which come from England; the cost of printed cotton being too great for the mass of the population. But though the sales of certain articles have fallen off, the facilities of communication which the Nile offers, have led to a gradual extension of the markets for other articles, and to a supply of European goods in the bazaars of the principal towns."

Trade between Egypt and British India.—"Some years ago, Mahomet Ali made more than one attempt to create this trade; but it was undertaken on too large a scale, and the results left a very considerable loss. Commercial relations can neither be violently forced, nor suddenly established to the extent which had been contemplated by the expansive mind of the viceroy. It may be safely predicted, that much of the European trade which now circumnavigates Africa, will, in process of time, take the more direct course through Egypt and the Red Sea; but that trade will be of gradual growth, and its development will much depend on the facilities which are given to transit.

"As yet, the steam communications with India have not led to any considerable increase of commerce, on or through the Red Sea. It is certain, however, that commerce will soon follow the track of travellers, but its extent will be greater or less according to the regulations of the Egyptian government. The more costly and least bulky articles will, in the progress of time, naturally be conveyed by the most direct and rapid channel. Already, articles of jewellery, precious stones, some rich shawls and bulion, are conveyed from and to India by the English steamers."

Trade with the Red Sea.—"The trade of Egypt with the Red Sea has been diminished, or rather almost destroyed, by the long enduring wars which have raged in the Yemen and the Hedjaz, and by the monopolies which have been created of the produce of Arabia. The principal ports on the Arabian side are Jedda and Mocha. From Jedda, the holy city of Mecca is principally supplied, and its commerce, on the whole, is increasing. The trade of Mocha has been on the decline both from the inconvenience of the port, and from the monopoly which has pressed on coffee, its principal article of export. The two principal ports on the west side of the Red Sea, are Suez and Cosseir, which communicate with Cairo and Keneh on the Nile. The importance of both has been of late years greatly augmented by the increase in the number of travellers from and to the East Indies, and a still larger increase may no doubt be calculated on. Keneh has generally sent large quantities of wheat to Arabia; sometimes a million bushels per annum. Camels ordinarily perform the journey in three days from Cairo to Suez, and in four from Keneh to Cosseir. The roads are now so safe that there is no accumulation into caravans, but goods are conveyed as they are ready with the utmost regularity and security. There is, however, the yearly caravan of pilgrims from Cairo to Mecca; and their transit through Egypt, in their way to and from Arabia, will always create a considerable number of commercial transactions. A great proportion of those who visit the holy cities carry on some petty trade of exchange, to which frequently they look, in order to pay the cost of the pilgrimage." The number of pilgrims who pass up the Nile to the holy cities is from 12,000 to 25,000.

Arabian exports.—"Arabia offers few articles for export; coffee and gums are the principal. Notwithstanding the high character of Arabian

horses, they are seldom bred for exportation. Though those of the best blood are fleet, they are more distinguished for endurance than for speed; they are less remarkable for what they can do, than for what they can suffer. Races sometimes take place among the Arabs of forty to fifty miles, in which the struggle is rather as to the power of bearing fatigue than of surpassing a rival in velocity."

African trade.—The immemorial caravan-trade with the interior of Africa, and with the Barbary States, is also much associated with the pilgrimage to Mecca, as they generally join the great caravan which leaves Cairo once a year for the holy cities. The exports of Dongola, Darfour, Senaar, and African countries to the south of the first cataract, are principally confined to negro slaves. "A few elephants' teeth, rhinoceros' horns, and ostrich feathers; some gums, sesame, aloes, tamarinds, natron, and a small quantity of gold ornaments (groups) and gold dust, are the principal articles of commerce. The amount of customs received, averages about 20,000 purses, or \$500,000 per annum."

"It has long been a favorite object with the viceroy to extend the trade with the regions to the south of his territories; and so great is their productive power, that, under a proper system, that trade is no doubt susceptible of an enormous augmentation. It was, indeed, formerly, very considerable. The very heavy duties exacted by the viceroy have led to its abandonment by the Frank merchants. An export impost of 10 per cent, was levied on the commodities at Fostat on a very high estimate of value; so that the amount really paid, sometimes rose to 20 per cent on the intrinsic value of the merchandise. There is little doubt that a low duty on manufactures exported to the south of the cataracts, combined with encouragement given to the imports of Central Africa, would create a considerable trade, and might be made instrumental in suppressing the slave-trade, which is now carried on to so great an extent. The article of gums might be produced to a very large extent in Senaar. Cordofan alone would give 8,000 loads per annum, of 540 lbs. each. The price paid by government per load, is only 110 piastres, while its value at Cairo is ordinarily 1,000 to 1,200."

ART. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES, IN FIFTY YEARS.

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER IX.

THE PROBABILITIES OF LIFE.—THE DEAF AND DUMB, THE BLIND, AND THE INSANE.

On these interesting topics our information is far more meagre than could be wished, but it has been gradually enlarging since 1790. The census of that year, indeed, afforded none, except the single fact of the number of white males above and below sixteen. The enumerations of 1800 and 1810 gave the numbers both of white males and females at five periods of life; but, like the first, made no discrimination of the sex or age of the colored race. That of 1820 gave the numbers both of the free colored and slaves, of both sexes, at four periods of life; and those of 1830 and 1840 have extended the discriminations of the whites to thir-

teen periods, and those of the colored race to six periods. The two last have also numbered the deaf and dumb at three periods of life, and the blind of both races; but the census of 1840 has added the number of insane, and has confined the discriminations of the deaf and dumb, according to age, to the whites.

The following tables show, as far as materials thus scanty and irregular permit, the comparative probabilities of life, between the sexes of each race, at different ages, saving the slight disturbances from migration, by which the white males gain, and the colored males lose:—

I.—The proportion of white Males and Females, at different ages, according to the enumerations of 1800, 1810, and 1820.

AGES.	1800.		1810.		1820.		1800.	1810.	1820.
	Males, per ct.	Fem's, per ct.	Males, per ct.	Fem's, per ct.	Males, per ct.	Fem's, per ct.	Prop'n of Males to Females as 100 to		
1. Whites under 10,	34.66	34.37	34.64	34.14	33.67	33.12	94.9	94.8	95.3
2. 10 and under 16,	16.01	15.34	15.67	15.60	15.33	15.65	94.3	95.8	98.9
3. 16 " 26,	17.84	19.03	18.33	19.55	19.43	20.21	102.1	102.6	100.7
4. 26 " 45,	19.58	19.51	19.15	18.93	19.18	19.05	95.5	95.1	96.1
5. 45 and upwards,	11.91	11.75	12.21	11.78	12.39	11.97	94.5	92.8	93.5
	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.			

II.—The proportion of white Males and Females, at different ages, according to the enumerations of 1830 and 1840.

AGES.	1830.		1840.		1830.	1840.
	Males, per cent.	Females, per cent.	Males, per cent.	Females, per cent.	Proportion of Males to Females as 100 to	
1. Whites under 5,.....	18.17	17.83	17.53	17.34	94.7	94.7
2. 5 and under 10,.....	14.60	14.53	14.13	14.22	96.	96.4
3. 10 " 15,.....	12.51	12.35	12.13	12.06	95.4	95.1
4. 15 " 20,.....	10.70	11.53	10.43	11.41	104.	104.8
5. 20 " 30,.....	17.86	17.76	18.24	18.06	96.	94.8
6. 30 " 40,.....	11.09	10.74	11.95	11.23	93.7	89.8
7. 40 " 50,.....	6.86	6.89	7.40	7.23	96.8	93.6
8. 50 " 60,.....	4.28	4.32	4.34	4.39	97.5	96.9
9. 60 " 70,.....	2.52	2.54	2.40	2.50	97.2	99.5
10. 70 " 80,.....	1.08	1.13	1.11	1.16	109.5	100.1
11. 80 " 90,.....	.29	.34	.30	.35	110.3	110.
12. 90 " 100,.....	.04	.05	.04	.05	112.2	128.9
13. 100 and upwards,.....	79.1	66.2
	100.	100.	100.	100.		

Whilst, of the children born alive, the males commonly exceed the females by about the twentieth part, the preceding tables show that the mortality of the males somewhat exceeds that of females in the middle periods of life, so as to more than counterbalance the original preponderance; owing, no doubt, to the greater casualties to which the male sex is exposed, and, probably, somewhat to their more frequent use of spirituous liquors in excess.

At the two last periods of life in the three first enumerations, viz., from

twenty-six to forty-five, and above forty-five, the males gain upon the females until they pass beyond their original excess. This is the effect, not of a greater mortality of the females, but of a greater accession of males by immigration, as will more clearly appear by the fuller details of the two last enumerations.

According to these, the males gain upon the females from the age of twenty to forty, after which the proportion of females gradually increases until the period from seventy to eighty, when it preponderates, and the excess still increases until the age of one hundred, after which the number of males is greatest. In these enumerations, it will be seen that the proportion of males was smaller in the first class, (those under five,) than at any of the twelve succeeding periods, except the class between thirty and forty in the 5th census, that between thirty and fifty in the 6th census, and the class over one hundred in both. Now, as most of those who have migrated to this country within ten years preceding a census would be above thirty at the time it was taken, and a majority are also known to be males, this partial and small increase in the proportion of males may be attributed, in part, to immigration, and in part, perhaps, to the greater mortality of women at this period of life; but to whatever cause we ascribe it, the census conclusively shows in the subsequent periods a diminished mortality of females, with the single exception of the small number who live above a century.

From this exception, conflicting as it does with the excess and increasing excess of females shown in the periods of life immediately preceding, we are not warranted in deducing any general rule on the comparative probabilities of life between the sexes, unless we knew the circumstances, or, at least, the place of birth, of these rare instances of longevity; for if the greater part, or even a considerable part of them were of foreign birth, and from countries of greater average salubrity than the United States, that fact, from the known disproportion of male immigrants, would tend to increase the proportion of males in the advanced stages of life; and whilst such increase would not be manifested in classes that consisted of thousands, (as do all those under 100,) it might have so much effect in the few hundreds above that age as to produce the excess of males that we see, and thus explain the seeming anomaly.

In comparing the chances of longevity in this country with those of other countries, we must take into account our more rapid increase of numbers. Thus, to ascertain what proportion of our population attain the age of 100, we must compare the number of those who have attained it, not with the present population, but with that which existed 100 years since, and this, at a moderate estimate of the intermediate increase, was less than one-sixteenth of our present numbers; whereas, in most densely peopled countries, the increase, in the same period, may not have been from one-eighth to one-fourth as great.* To make, then, the comparison fairly, we multiply the number of persons in this country of the age supposed in the same proportion. In like manner, to compute the chances of here attaining the age of fifty, we must compare the number who have now reached

* In England, the population in 1730 was 5,687,993, and in 1831 was 14,174,204, less than 2½ times as great; and from 1700 to 1800 the numbers had not even doubled. In every other part of Europe, except Russia, the increase is yet more slow.

that age with the population at the first census, when it was less than one-fourth of its present amount.

As the census has, since 1830, made quinquennial classes of the whites of both sexes under twenty, and decennial for all above that age and under 100, it had afforded the means of estimating, with great accuracy, the probability of life of each sex at different periods by comparing the numbers of the several classes in the preceding census, with those of the classes ten years older in the succeeding census, if it were not for the interference of two causes, whose quantities we have no means of precisely ascertaining. These are the diminution of males from boyhood to middle age, by roaming and going to sea, and the increase of both males and females, but in unequal quantities, by immigration; of which disturbing influences the census affords us the most satisfactory evidence. Thus, the class of females between fifteen and twenty, in the census of 1840, which corresponds to the class between five and ten, in the census of 1830, instead of exhibiting a decrease, by reason of the deaths in the intervening period of ten years, shows an increase of 41,427, equivalent to $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; which effect must necessarily have been produced by accessions from abroad, supposing the ages of the females to be accurately noted.* Thus, too, whilst the females of this class show an increase of $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, a similar comparison of the males between five and ten, in 1830, with those between fifteen and twenty, in 1840, exhibits a decrease of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; which seems to indicate that, although immigration has considerably swelled their numbers in ten years, it has done so to a less extent than with females, principally by the number of boys who have gone abroad, and in some degree by the greater mortality which is manifested by the general tenor of the census.

It is proper to add that the same sources of error which have been mentioned, must affect any estimates that can be made of the probabilities of life in the United States, and that, therefore, the tables that have been given must be regarded as only approximating to the truth.

Let us now advert to the colored race in reference to this subject.

The following tables compare the decrease of life between the free and slave portions of the colored population, and between the males and females of each, according to the three last enumerations, when the discriminations were first made:—

I.—The proportion of colored Males and Females, according to the census of 1820.

AGES.	FREE COLORED.		SLAVES.		FREE COL.	SLAVES.
	Males, per cent.	Females, per cent.	Males, per cent.	Females, per cent.	Proportion of Males to Females as 100 to	
Under..... 14,.....	42.27	38.	43.63	43.24	96.3	94.3
14 and under 26,.....	21.30	23.89	25.77	26.98	120.1	99.6
26 " 45,.....	20.80	22.50	20.78	20.36	115.9	95.4
45 and upwards,.....	15.63	15.61	9.82	9.42	107.1	91.3
	100.	100.	100.	100.	107.2	95.1

* As it seems scarcely credible that the number, at any period of life, should have gained by immigration in any given time equal to the loss sustained in the same time by death, it is rational to suppose that some error has crept into this part of the census. Can it be that many of this class of females, who work from home, are counted twice? or, must we suppose that many, who have passed twenty, have reduced their age within more desirable limits?

II.—The proportion of colored Males and Females, according to the census of 1830.

AGES.	FREE COLORED.		SLAVES.		FREE COL. SLAVES.	
	Males, per cent.	Females, per cent.	Males, per cent.	Females, per cent.	Proportion of Males to Females as 100 to	
Under.....10.....	31.72	28.49	34.90	34.90	97.4	98.3
10 and under 24.....	28.07	28.97	30.86	30.99	111.7	98.8
24 " 36.....	18.02	19.59	18.32	18.65	117.7	100.1
36 " 55.....	14.51	14.64	11.74	11.23	109.3	94.1
55 " 100.....	7.50	8.08	4.10	4.16	115.6	99.7
100 and upwards.....	.18	.23	.07	.07	143.5	90.4
	100.	100.	100.	100.	108.3	98.4

III.—The proportion of colored Males and Females, according to the census of 1840.

AGES.	FREE COLORED.		SLAVES.		FREE COL. SLAVES.	
	Males, per cent.	Females, per cent.	Males, per cent.	Females, per cent.	Proportion of Males to Females as 100 to	
Under.....10.....	30.20	27.57	33.91	33.97	97.8	99.7
10 and under 24.....	28.32	28.31	31.38	31.44	107.2	99.7
24 " 36.....	18.93	20.86	18.88	19.32	118.	101.9
36 " 55.....	15.16	15.21	11.66	11.22	107.5	95.8
55 " 100.....	7.24	7.87	4.11	4.	116.5	96.9
100 and upwards.....	.15	.18	.06	.05	126.2	77.
	100.	100.	100.	100.	107.2	99.3

These tables seem to indicate a much greater mortality among the males than the females of the free colored population ; as though, in the class under the age of puberty, the males exceed the females about 2 or 3 per cent, yet, in all the subsequent periods of life, the females have the preponderance, and after the age of fifty-five the disproportion greatly increases. Part of this excess, indeed, is to be ascribed to the roving habits of the males ; yet, as this cause operates chiefly with the young and middle aged, the increasing excess of females after fifty-five can be attributed only to their greater longevity.

The period between thirty-six and fifty-five, in the two last enumerations, presents an exception to the supposed greater mortality, as the excess of females which, between the ages of twenty-four and thirty-six, had been as much as eighteen per cent, had, in the period from thirty-six to fifty-five, declined from eight to ten per cent.

This single instance of a decrease in the proportion of females might be caused either, 1st. by a greater number of males emancipated than of females between thirty-six and fifty-five, 2d. by the return of a part of those males who had gone abroad before the age of thirty-six, or, lastly, by a greater mortality of females at this period of life. There seems to be no ground for presuming the existence of the first cause ; but the census, both in 1830 and 1840, affords some evidence of both the others. Thus, if the free colored males between thirty-six and fifty-five be compared with those between twenty-four and thirty-six, the former will be found to be only twenty per cent less ; whereas, if the male slaves at the same periods of life be compared, the diminution is from thirty-five to forty per

cent. This difference between the two portions of the colored race, so greatly exceeding any supposable difference of mortality, must be referred to a return of a part of the free colored who had roamed abroad. We are also warranted in attributing a part of the difference to the greater mortality of women about this period of life, because we perceive the same falling off in the proportion of females between the ages of thirty-six and fifty-five in the class of slaves, in which none of the males who leave the country ever return to it; and because, also, we have some evidence of a falling off in the proportion of white females about the same time of life.

In the slave portion of the colored population, there seems to be but little difference in the chances of life between the sexes. From the age of ten to twenty-four, the males retain the small excess of from one to two per cent, which they had under ten years of age. From twenty-four to thirty-six, the number of females slightly preponderates. From thirty-six to fifty-five, the males gain on the females; from fifty-five to one hundred, the females gain on the males; and after one hundred, the males regain and exceed their original preponderance.

We are the more warranted in referring these alternations to general causes, as they are found in both the last enumerations. The gain of the females between the ages of twenty-four and thirty-six, may be referred to the greater casualties to which the male sex is exposed, and to the greater number of runaways of that sex. The loss of the females from thirty-six to fifty-five, is probably to be ascribed to that greater mortality of the sex which has been observed in the other classes at this period of life. The gain of the females from fifty-five to one hundred may be confidently attributed to their greater longevity, after they have passed the age of fifty; and if the excess of males above one hundred, which is shown by the census, may seem to contradict this supposition, the fact admits of a similar explanation to that given for the excess of white males of this extreme age. Most of the male slaves over one hundred may have been Africans by birth, and have thus had constitutions more favorable to long life than the average of the native slaves, much the largest part of whom live in the least healthy parts of the United States. This supposition derives some probability from the fact that in the free colored class, which is known to consist almost entirely of natives, the females above one hundred exhibit a continuance of the same progressive excess which they had exhibited in the periods of life immediately preceding.

There is a manifest difference in mortality and longevity between the two portions of the colored race, in favor of the free colored class. By the census of 1820, of those under thirty-six, the proportional numbers of the two classes are nearly the same; but of those over that age, the free colored are fifteen per cent of their whole number, while the slaves are but ten per cent. By the two last enumerations, the centesimal proportions of each class from twenty-four to thirty-six are nearly equal; but after thirty-six, the proportion of the free colored increase in an augmented ratio.

A part of this excess is attributable to emancipation, which commonly takes place in middle life, whether it be effected by the favor of the master, or by the purchase of his freedom by the slave himself; but the change in the relative numbers of the two portions in after life, shows that those who are free are more long-lived than the slaves.

The causes of this difference may arise from several circumstances. Of the colored population, a much larger proportion of the free than of the slaves is probably descended from the white, as well as the African race; and it is possible that this mixed breed may possess some advantages of temperament, as they certainly do of appearance, which is favorable to longevity. Or, it may be, that the small number who attain old age may have been better provided with the comforts of life, and have taken better care of their health than the slaves are able to do. Or, lastly, since many of the free colored consist of those who have been emancipated for their merits or services, or have purchased their freedom by the earnings of a long course of industry, sobriety, and frugality, it may happen that the excess of the long-lived is derived from this description of persons, who would, from the regularity and good conduct implied by their change of condition, be most likely to attain long life.

As the enumerations, both of 1830 and 1840, have adopted different discriminations of age for the whites and the colored race between the ages of ten and one hundred, we cannot accurately compare the chances of life between the two races for the intermediate periods. But by the census of 1820, the discriminations of the colored classes coincided with those of the whites by that and the two preceding enumerations in two particulars, to wit: as to those who were between the ages of twenty-six and forty-five, and those who were above forty-five. Let us, then, compare the two races at these periods of life.

By the enumerations of 1800, 1810, and 1820, the white males between twenty-six and forty-five were 19.58, 19.15, and 19.18 per cent of the whole number, making an average of 19.30 per cent; and the white females were 19.51, 18.93, and 19.05, making an average of 19.16 per cent.

By the census of 1820, the males of the free colored class were 20.80 per cent, those of the slaves were 20.78, and both together, equal to 20.79 per cent of the whole colored population;* and the females of the free colored were 22.50, those of the slaves, 20.36, and both together, equal to 20.40 per cent of the whole. At this period of life, then, the centesimal proportion of the whites of each sex was about one and a half per cent less than that of the colored race.

If those over forty-five be similarly compared, the centesimal proportion will be as follows:—

<i>1st. Of the Males—</i>		per cent.
Whites, in 1800, 1810, and 1820, 11.91, 12.21, 12.39, average		12.17
Free colored and slaves, in 1820.....	"	10.55
		<hr/>
		Difference.. 1.62
<i>2nd. Of the Females—</i>		per cent.
Whites, in 1800, 1810, and 1820, 11.75, 11.78, 11.97, average		11.83
Free colored and slaves, in 1820.....	"	10.30
		<hr/>
		Difference.. 1.53

* By uniting the two classes of the colored race, the comparison is not disturbed by emancipation, by which the numbers of one class is increased and the other diminished, to the same absolute extent, indeed, but in very different proportions.

This relative gain of the whites after forty-five may seem at first to indicate greater mortality in the colored race in the later periods of life. But when it is recollected that the whites gain largely by those who migrate to this country, (sometimes, as we shall see, more than ten per cent,) and that the colored race, on the contrary, lose somewhat by emigration, the influence of these two causes might be expected to make a greater difference than has been mentioned, if they were not counteracted by the greater tenacity of life of persons of the colored race when they have passed middle age.

Such a comparison between the two races at a later period of life as we are able to make under the enumerations of 1830 and 1840, affords evidence of the same fact. Thus, by taking the proportional mean between the whites over fifty, and those over sixty, we obtain the probable number over fifty-five, which we may then compare with the numbers of the colored race of that age, according to actual enumeration. The number of white males over fifty-five, by computation, was, in 1830, 5.68 per cent of the whole number; and in 1840, 5.62 per cent. The number of white females in 1830, 5.84 per cent; and in 1840, 5.86 per cent. The comparison, therefore, between the whites and the colored race past forty-five, will be as follows:—

<i>Males—</i>		per cent.
Whites, 5.68, 5.62 per cent.....	average..	5.65
Free colored and slaves, 4.72, 4.59.....	"	4.65

Difference..1.

<i>Females—</i>		per cent.
Whites, 5.84, 5.86 per cent.....	average..	5.85
Free colored and slaves, 4.81, 4.61.....	"	4.71

Difference..1.14

By which it appears, that the small proportionate excess of the whites over forty-five, was, at a period of life ten years later, diminished about one half of one per cent. We unfortunately have no means of comparing the two races at any intermediate period between fifty-five and one hundred, by which we should be able to see whether, as the influence of immigration declined, (but a very small number of European emigrants to this country being past middle age,) the proportion of the colored race continued to increase. But a comparison of their respective numbers, years of age, and upwards 100, would lead us to expect that result. Thus:—

In 1830, the whites over 100 were, males 301

" " " " females 238

— 539, equal to 1 in 19,529

" free colored* " males 269

" " " " females 386

— 655, " 1 in 487

" slaves " " males 748

" " " " females 676

— 1,424, " 1 in 1,410

* The free colored and the slaves are here separated, as emancipation scarcely ever takes place at this advanced age.

According to which, the chances of attaining this extraordinary longevity were more than thirteen times as great with the slaves, and forty times as great with the free colored as the whites.

In 1840, the whites over 100 were, males 476			
"	"	"	females 315
— 791, equal to 1 in 17,938			
"	free colored	"	males 286
"	"	"	females 361
— 647, " 1 in 597			
"	slaves	"	males 753
"	"	"	females 580
— 1,333, " 1 in 1,866			

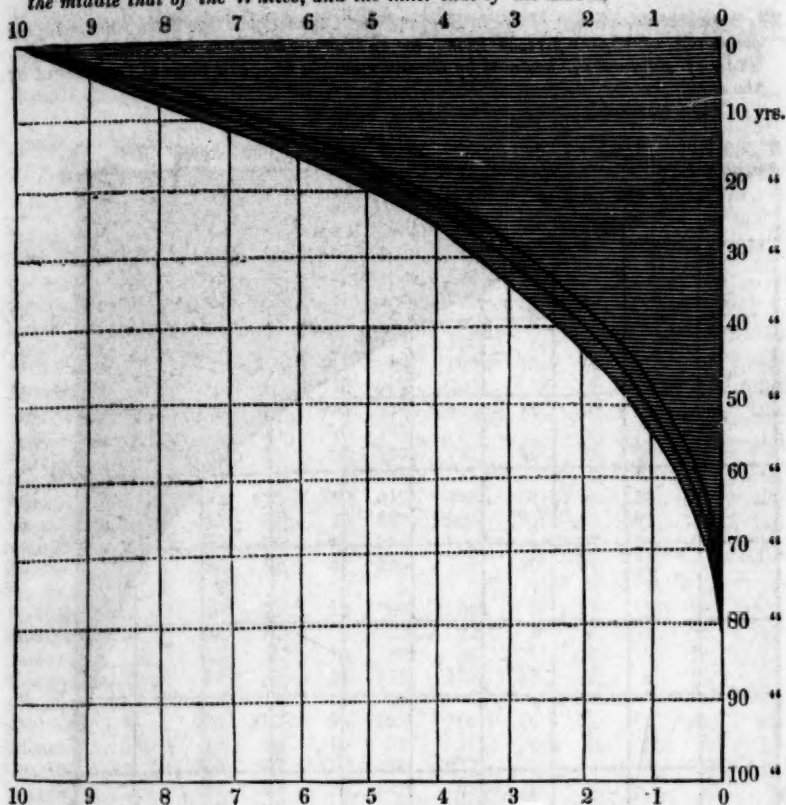
Which shows a less, but still extraordinary disproportion in favor of the colored race; the proportionate number of the slaves to that of the whites being more than as nine to one, and of the free colored to the whites as thirty to one.

It is proper to remark, that the ages of the colored part of the population are, for the most part, conjectural, their births being rarely recorded even in family registers; and consequently, that the uncertainty is greatest in the most advanced stages of life. There is, moreover, a very prevalent disposition among the slaves who are past middle age to over-state their ages, either by way of furnishing an excuse for a relaxation of labor, or of presenting stronger claims to kindness and charity.

On the other hand, the temperate mode of living, the steady but moderate labor to which most of the slaves are habituated; their freedom from cares about the future, and, as a consequence of these incidents to their condition their comparative exemption from some of the maladies which greatly abridge life with the whites, as diseases of the stomach, of the liver, and the lungs, obviously tend to increase the proportion of those who attain extraordinary longevity. It has also been supposed by some that more than a fair quota of the superannuated few are native Africans, who would thus seem to have better constitutions than the average of their race born in the United States. And lastly, it is possible that an undue proportion of the long-lived may be of the mixed breed, and that such may be more tenacious of life than either the white or the negro race. Should this prove to be the fact, it may aid us, as has been already mentioned, in accounting for the greater longevity of the free colored than of the slaves. It is only by a careful attention to the individual cases of longevity, that these questions in the statistics of life can be solved.

The following diagram presents to the eye the proportions in which the whites, free colored persons, and slaves, are respectively distributed, according to age; and it would accurately show the mortality of each class but for emigration, by which the number of whites is increased and that of the colored classes is diminished; and for emancipation, by which one of these classes gains and the other loses. The horizontal lines indicate the number of persons living at and above the ages annexed to them; the outer curve marking the numbers of the free colored, the middle line those of the whites, and the inner line those of the slaves.

The comparative decrease of life of the White, Free Colored, and Slave population in the United States : the black lines showing the proportion of persons living at Salem, the ages respectively annexed. The outer curve marks the lines of the Free Colored, the middle that of the Whites, and the inner that of the Slaves.

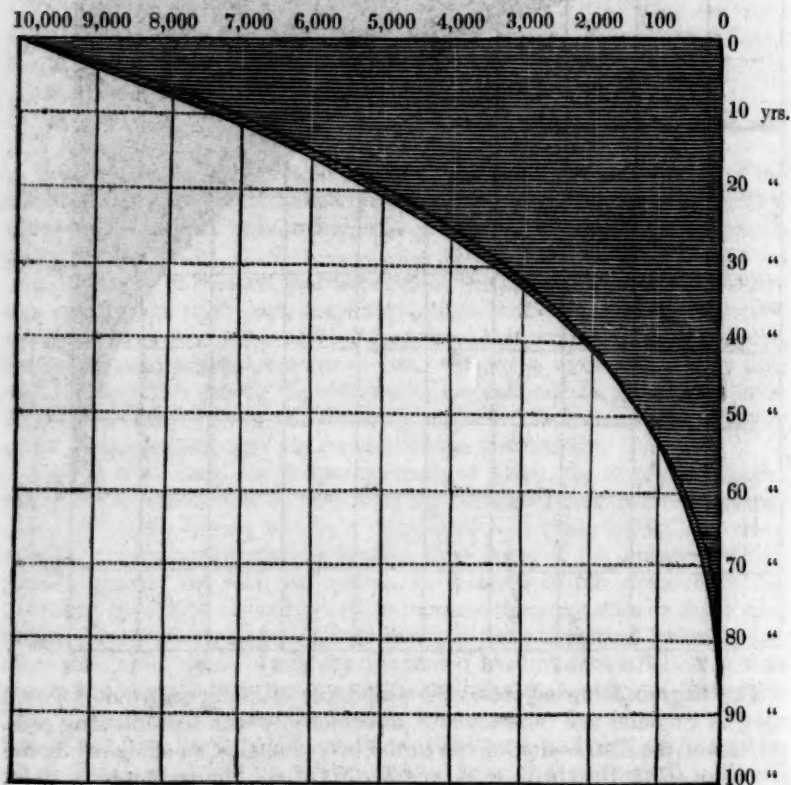


The diagram following shows the proportion of living males, at different ages, in England and Connecticut,* in conformity with the following comparison of the distribution of life in the two countries, as exhibited by the census of Great Britain, in 1821, and by that of the United States, in 1840. According to these, of every 10,000 males there will be living :—

<i>In England.</i>		<i>In Connecticut.</i>	
Under 10 years of age,	2,881	2,458	
10 to 20	2,157	2,292	
20 to 30	1,990	1,760	
30 to 40	1,156	1,285	
	4,783	5,337	
40 to 50	940	900	
50 to 60	666	615	
60 to 70	448	386	
	2,054	1,901	
70 to 80	222	228	
80 to 90	56	69	
90 to 100, &c.	4	7	
	282	304	
	10,000	10,000	

* This state is selected because it is one of the few which do not gain by immigration.

The comparative decrease of life in England and Connecticut: the black lines show the proportion of 10,000 persons living at and above the ages respectively annexed. Those of England are bounded by the inner curved line, and those of Connecticut by the outer.



By which we perceive that under ten years of age, the number in England is greatest by about fourteen per cent; from ten to forty, the number in Connecticut exceeds about twelve per cent; from forty to seventy, the excess is again in favor of England by five per cent; and after seventy, Connecticut again exceeds by about seven per cent. It is not easy to say in what degrees these diversities, thus varying and alternating, are influenced by a difference of the natural increase of emigration and of mortality in the two countries. It must be admitted that there are few parts of the United States which would compare as advantageously with England in the probabilities of life as Connecticut.

The number of Deaf and Dumb and Blind, in the white and colored population of the United States, on the 1st of August, 1830.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITES.					COLORED PERSONS.				
	DEAF AND DUMB.				BLIND.	DEAF AND DUMB.				BLIND.
	Und. 14.	14 to 25.	25 and upw'ds	Total		Und. 14.	14 to 25.	25 & upw'ds	Total	
Maine,.....	64	60	56	180	159	4	1	5	1
New Hampshire,...	32	55	48	135	105	5	1	3	9
Vermont,.....	39	59	55	153	51	3	2	5
Massachusetts,....	56	62	138	256	218	2	3	4	9	5
Rhode Island,.....	6	22	28	56	56	2	2	4	8
Connecticut,.....	43	152	99	294	188	4	2	6	7
New York,.....	277	310	255	842	642	17	14	12	43	82
New Jersey,.....	64	71	72	207	205	5	2	8	15	22
Pennsylvania,.....	224	279	255	758	475	12	12	15	39	28
Delaware,.....	6	15	14	35	18	5	4	9	11
Maryland,.....	50	31	54	135	147	40	30	26	96	124
Dist. of Columbia,.	4	5	3	12	11	1	2	3	6	16
Virginia,.....	132	118	169	419	355	51	41	38	130	438
North Carolina,....	70	81	79	230	223	31	27	25	83	161
South Carolina,....	60	52	62	174	102	9	27	33	69	136
Georgia,.....	50	51	44	145	150	26	21	12	59	123
Florida,.....	2	3	5	3	1	2	3	6	16
Alabama,.....	45	25	19	89	68	9	7	7	23	48
Mississippi,.....	12	10	7	29	25	2	8	2	12	31
Louisiana,.....	15	15	19	49	36	7	5	9	21	77
Tennessee,.....	59	59	54	172	176	13	9	6	28	37
Arkansas,.....	6	2	2	10	8	4	4	2
Kentucky,.....	100	113	90	303	169	16	25	5	46	83
Missouri,.....	12	5	10	27	27	2	1	5	8	10
Ohio,.....	148	160	118	426	232	5	4	6
Indiana,.....	49	59	33	141	85	1	2	3	2
Illinois,.....	23	27	16	66	35	4
Michigan,.....	4	7	4	15	5
Total,.....	1,652	1,905	1,806	5,363	3,974	272	246	224	743	1,470

The white population at that time being 10,537,373, and the colored 2,328,642, the number of whites, deaf and dumb, according to the preceding table (5,363) was equivalent to 1 in 1,964, and of colored persons (743) was 1 in 3,134. Of the blind, the number of whites (3,974) was 1 in 2,651, and of colored persons, 1 in 1,584. This shows an excess of whites, deaf and dumb, in a somewhat greater proportion than three to two, and an excess of blind in the colored race in about the same ratio.

The number of Deaf and Dumb, Blind, and Insane, of the whites and colored population of the United States, on the 1st of August, 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITES.					COLORED PERSONS.			
	DEAF AND DUMB.				BLIND.	INSANE AND IDIOTS.	DEAF AND DUMB.	BLIND.	INSANE AND IDIOTS.
	Under 14.	14 to 25.	25 and up's.	Total.					
Maine,.....	47	13	102	222	180	537	13	10	94
New Hampshire, ..	43	41	97	181	153	486	9	3	19
Vermont,.....	27	19	89	135	101	398	2	2	13
Massachusetts,	56	63	164	283	308	1,071	17	22	200
Rhode Island,.....	15	25	34	74	63	203	3	1	13
Connecticut,.....	60	141	108	309	143	498	8	13	44
New York,.....	269	362	408	1,039	875	2,146	68	91	194
New Jersey,.....	33	29	102	164	126	369	15	26	53
Pennsylvania,.....	225	225	331	781	540	1,946	51	96	187
Delaware,.....	18	15	12	45	15	52	8	18	28
Maryland,.....	43	59	79	181	171	400	68	101	150
Dist. of Columbia,	1	5	2	8	6	14	4	9	7
Virginia,.....	133	111	209	453	426	1,048	150	466	384
North Carolina,....	82	80	118	280	223	550	74	167	221
South Carolina,....	40	41	59	140	133	376	78	156	137
Georgia,.....	78	62	53	193	136	294	64	151	134
Florida,.....	6	4	4	14	9	10	2	10	12
Alabama,.....	72	53	48	173	113	232	53	96	125
Mississippi,.....	25	16	23	64	43	116	28	69	82
Louisiana,.....	14	17	11	42	37	55	17	36	45
Arkansas,.....	18	11	11	40	26	45	2	8	21
Tennessee,.....	102	93	96	291	255	699	67	99	152
Kentucky,.....	120	128	152	400	236	795	77	141	180
Missouri,.....	48	32	46	126	82	202	27	42	68
Ohio,.....	167	198	194	559	372	1,195	33	33	165
Indiana,.....	112	91	94	297	135	487	15	19	66
Illinois,.....	54	48	53	155	86	213	24	10	79
Michigan,.....	7	9	15	31	25	39	2	4	26
Wisconsin,.....	1	4	5	9	8	3
Iowa,.....	3	2	5	10	3	7	4	3	4
Total,.....	1,919	2,057	2,709	6,685	5,030	14,521	979	1,902	2,935

According to the preceding table—

The deaf and dumb of the whites was 1 in 2,123

“ “ of the colored 1 in 2,933

The number of the blind was—

“ of the whites 1 in 2,821

“ of the colored 1 in 1,509.

The number of the insane was—

“ of the whites 1 in 977

“ of the colored 1 in 978

This census, like the preceding, shows a greater proportion of whites among the deaf and dumb, and of the colored race among the blind; but in both descriptions, their relative proportions were changed in favor of the whites. Thus, in the deaf and dumb, the ratio of the whites had diminished from $\frac{1}{2123}$ to $\frac{1}{2933}$, whilst that of the colored population had increased from $\frac{1}{2933}$ to $\frac{1}{2123}$; and in the blind, the ratio of the whites had decreased from $\frac{1}{2821}$ to $\frac{1}{1509}$, but that of the colored classes had slightly increased, that is, from $\frac{1}{1509}$ to $\frac{1}{2821}$. These opposite changes in the two races are probably not greater than can be accounted for by the extraordi-

nary loss which the colored population has sustained from emigration in the last ten years, (as is shown by the census,) and also by the unusual influx of Europeans in the same time, since persons falling under either class of disability, would be rarely found among emigrants.

It deserves to be remarked, as favoring some of the conjectural views that have been hazarded in comparing the two races, that of the three privations here considered, the only one that is always congenital is far less frequent with the colored than the white population ; whereas, the greater proportionate number of blind in the former class may be reasonably referred to the severer labor and greater exposure to which they are occasionally subject ; to their greater improvidence, and greater want of medical assistance.

Of the insane and idiotic, the proportions in the two races would seem to be identical ; somewhat more than one in a thousand in both being visited by the greatest of all human maladies. The census distinguishes between those patients of this description who were at public and at private charge, as follows :—

At public charge, whites	4,333
“ colored	833
	— 5,166
At private charge, whites	10,188
“ colored	2,102
	— 12,290

Showing, that in both classes of the population, the proportion at public charge is the same, and that it is about forty per cent of the number at private charge.

ART. III.—THE NAVY AND THE LATE TREATY.

WE took occasion a few months ago, to call the attention of the mercantile community to the proposed reduction of the navy. We maintained, —and we have reason to believe that the stand we took was supported by those to whom we addressed ourselves,—that the mutilation of our maritime service would be the ruin of our commercial strength. We called attention to the fact, that after twenty years had demonstrated that as our navy had grown, our commerce had grown ; that, as our right arm of defence had extended itself across the ocean, our traders had extended themselves under its protection ; that in proportion as our power had been made respectable in foreign ports, our goods had found access within foreign custom-houses. We called attention to the fact, that, without the slightest note of premonition, without the hearing of the parties interested either in committee or before the house, the attempt was made at the opening of the present congress to cut down the naval appropriations and to emasculate the naval service. The attempt was in part successful. We protested against the measure at its inception, on grounds both personal and national. We protested against it, because we knew that the weak-

ening of our force on the high seas would leave our merchantmen exposed to the invasions of barbarian jealousy, and the machinations of European spite. We protested against it, because by the ostentation of our maritime imbecility, we would provoke insults whose reparation would cost a hundred times as much as would be saved by the profligate economy which invited them. We make use of the opportunity which is given us by the opening of the present session, to consider the change in our foreign policy since we last wrote, in conjunction with the fresh information which the reports of the various departments afford us both in regard to our naval strength and our commercial necessities.

We stated in the article to which we have just alluded, that we considered the position of our foreign affairs to be by no means so secure as to warrant the disbandment of our maritime police. The late treaty between the United States and Great Britain, has gone but a little way to weaken our opinion. When Lord Ashburton was still in Washington, when the negotiation was still in progress, when the desire of the contracting parties for an honorable and complete peace was expressed, with the full solemnity of official sanction, we had every reason to hope for a speedy and absolute determination of every point at issue. Satisfactory as was the treaty in the single feature it embraced, it affords no guarantee for the conduct of the cabinets of either St. James or Washington, on points which, to the shipping interest, are the most material. It did, no doubt, all that could be done under the peculiar circumstances with which the negotiation was surrounded; but it has left untouched, questions for which we called most to have decided. The shipper does not know whether tomorrow his crew may not be snatched from him in a distant sea to make up the complement of a British man-of-war. The merchant may expect to hear, as he has already too often heard, of the detention of his vessel in the suspected latitudes, in order that her papers may be searched and her property adjudicated. The common carrier is still exposed to the capture and dispersion of his cargo in a foreign port, within whose inhospitable harbor the stress of the weather may have driven him, should he happen to cover by his flag slaves, whom the policy of another country considers freemen. The questions most concerning the mercantile interest, are still unsettled and we must continue to look to the arms of the government for remedies against the contingency of aggression, which it has not been in the power of its diplomacy to anticipate.

There are seas in which our commerce must continue to be exposed to vexations, whose occurrence have already frustrated many a voyage, and from whose repetition the late negotiations have failed to secure us. The coasting trade along the shores of the southern states, the packet business of the ports between the Potomac and the Mississippi, are liable, every day, to the recurrence of the injury which was inflicted in the case of the *Creole*. If a single slave be on board the ship, the master will be prevented from taking refuge, in case of distress, in an English harbor, lest his cargo be overhauled and his property confiscated. Even should there be not a single repetition of the *Creole* outrage, the check which it has thrown upon the enterprise of the country and shippers, has damaged, in a great degree, the welfare of that branch of the mercantile interest. No underwriter will be content with the ordinary premium on a vessel which should pretend to carry slaves between New York and New Orleans. We question, indeed, whether the fact of having slaves aboard,

without the insurer's knowledge, would not be sufficient to vitiate the policy in case of a loss through refusal to take refuge in a British port. We have received due notice from the British government of its intention to carry out, on every suitable occasion, the precedent established with the Creole; and the captain whose crew or cargo may be composed in part of slaves, will prefer to meet the chances of shipwreck, rather than experience the inhospitality of Jamaica or the Bahama islands.

It is not so much the single outrage, or the probability of its repetition, that suggests an enlargement of our navy, as the danger under which we rest of having on each new opportunity, fresh though similar injuries sprung upon us. It is true that slavery is recognised by the constitution as a legitimate portion of the institutions of the southern states; is essential to the production of their crops and to the prosperity of their people. It is true that the convenience and necessities of the planter demand the free transportation of slaves from point to point. It is true that the attack upon the Creole has hazarded the transportation of slaves by sea, and forced upon the planter other methods of conveyance, far more costly, and far more oppressive. Considerable, however, as are the positive injuries that have resulted from the blow, they are but little in comparison with the moral degradation which accompanied it. We submitted with scarcely a struggle, we have vainly asked for reparation; and after the lapse of more than a year, we are informed by Lord Ashburton, in a tone in singular contrast to his usual mildness, that we can neither hope for apology or reparation. "Great Britain," is the sum of his final answer to Mr. Webster, in the Creole correspondence, "Great Britain is strong, and you are weak; Great Britain has the means of attack, and you have not the means of defence; Great Britain has attacked you, and you may expect Great Britain will attack you, as long as your imbecility is as great as your obnoxiousness."

If it was only to a narrow strip of sea that the danger applied, we might be able to overlook the offence itself on its minuteness. But Cape Florida cannot be doubled, or the West India archipelago cannot be pierced, without exposing the mariner to those very hazards which encountered the Creole. The banks of the Bahamas, studded as they are with numerous islands, whose shores present at one time the most treacherous shoals, at another, the most perilous rocks, are spread along the mouth of the Gulf of Mexico in the main high road of the western ocean; and yet, no matter how great may be the danger of shipwreck, the captain will be deterred from putting into the shelter of an English port, (and there are none others on the banks,) without the hazard of a repetition of the Creole insult. Through the channels of the West Indies, nearly one-third of our commerce must pass; and when the table which we here present is considered, it will be seen that at least one-half our shipping is exposed to the impositions we have already experienced. We do not complain of the silence of the treaty on the point so at issue; it was probably on our part unavoidable; but we do most earnestly contend, that the shipping and commercial interests should be protected by an adequate navy against the aggressions which the exhibition of our weakness has invited.

Statistical View of the Commerce and Navigation of the United States in the South-western Section of the Atlantic Ocean, in the year ending September 30, 1841.

PORTS.	IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.		AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Value of Imports.	Value of Exports.	Entered the U. States.	Cleared from the U. States.	Entered the U. States.	Cleared from the U. States.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1. Swedish W. Indies	19,760	168,891	1,082	3,455	95
2. Danish W. Indies,	1,075,530	852,495	23,667	29,464	2,957	427
3. Dutch W. Indies, ..	500,197	532,893	12,588	6,666	939	720
4. Dutch Guiana,	35,793	37,900	4,730	5,496	117
5. British W. Indies, ..	855,122	3,231,994	68,442	91,587	39,369	18,632
6. British Honduras, ..	232,244	193,246	4,355	6,409	1,030	1,010
7. British Guiana,	18,228	382,601	2,755	8,827	13,174	1,613
8. French W. Indies, ..	198,216	422,522	12,732	22,154	3,394	467
9. French Guiana,	55,416	44,041	1,713	1,657
10. Miquelon & French Fisheries,	2,257
11. Hayti,	1,809,684	1,155,557	35,899	26,904	748	763
12. Cuba,	4,507,027	5,739,082	199,685	194,001	11,920	14,168
13. Other Spanish W. Indies,	2,560,020	749,932	51,074	30,129	443	730
14. Mexico,	3,284,957	2,036,620	17,981	14,018	5,040	4,935
15. Venezuela,	2,012,004	762,502	14,964	9,530	1,658	1,284
16. New Grenada,	144,117	110,435	287	533	722	722
17. Central America, ..	186,911	149,913	2,223	1,178	145	145
18. Brazil,	6,302,653	3,517,273	41,684	47,634	4,503	3,101
19. Argentine Republic	1,612,513	661,946	13,726	6,564	2,319
20. Cisplatine Republic	345,234	156,224	4,427	10,107	540
21. Chili,	1,230,980	1,102,988	3,072	5,962	300	991
22. Peru,	524,376	129
23. Patagonia,	27,269
24. S. America gener.,	78,981	736	399
25. W. Indies generally	264,235	88	11,435	1,252
26. Atlantic Ocean,	4,485	13,920
Total,	27,598,350	24,153,928	502,530	548,025	89,201	51,192

"It is believed," says the Secretary of the Navy, in the report which has just appeared, "that there is not in the world a greater amount of commercial and agricultural interest belonging to any one country, so much at the mercy of the most inconsiderable maritime force as is that of the Gulf of Mexico." Through the narrow frith which is bound in by the coasts of Florida and the shoals of the Bahama islands, one third of our commerce is filtered; and yet, so careless have we been both of our national honor and our commercial strength, that a single steamship could block up the channel and destroy every merchantman on its waters. We have been obliged by the authorities of the neighboring islands to bend our knee in their presence. "The Bahama islands," was the language of Mr. Webster in treating of this branch of the subject under negotiation, "approach the coast of Florida within a few leagues, and, with the coast, form a long and narrow channel filled with innumerable small islands and beds of sand; and the navigation is difficult and dangerous, not only on these accounts, but from the violence of the winds, and the variable nature of the currents. Accidents are of course frequent, and necessity often compels vessels of the United States, in attempting to double Cape Florida, to take shelter in

the ports of these islands." In cases similar to the Creole, he proceeds to state, "complaints have been made of the officious interference of the colonial authorities with the vessels." Against the recurrence of similar injuries, the treaty gives us no guarantee; for the loss suffered by the Creole, it gives us no satisfaction; and we call upon government to afford us that protection which will save our name from disgrace and our property from ruin.

If the defenceless situation of our interests within the mouth of the Gulf of Mexico, and among the West India islands, attracts our anxious consideration, such is much more the case with our trade on the African coast. There is no provision at present made for a single national vessel on the shores of the whole of that great territory; and though there is a probability that, in conformity with the late treaty, a force of eighty guns will be sent to the suspected latitudes, that force will be chiefly and legitimately occupied with the chasing of occasional slavers. We subjoin a table which exhibits our trade around the African promontory; and we would demand the most grave attention to the increasing hazards of a traffic which bids fair, could it be extricated from the perils of barbarian aggression, to equal in value the remaining branches of our commercial operations:—

Statistical view of the Commerce and Navigation of the United States in the South-eastern Seas, in the year ending September 30, 1841.

PORTS.	IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.		AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Value of Imports.	Value of Exports.	Entered the U. States.	Cleared from the U. States.	Entered the U. States.	Cleared from the U. States.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1. Dutch East Indies,	266,425	403,026	507	5,324
2. Cape of Good Hope	17,155	51,324	219	958	152
3. Australia,.....	86,706	176,341	1,850	3,457	346
4. Brit. African ports,	324	189	117
5. French African p's,	203	262
6. China,.....	3,095,388	1,200,816	11,986	4,876
7. Asia, generally,.....	167,318	759,028	2,279	4,468
8. Africa, generally,...	408,955	636,768	5,841	7,382	868	514
9. South Seas,.....	38,440	494,565	32,347	55,504
10. Sandwich Islands,	47,630	693	1,250
11. British East Indies,	1,236,641	963,201	6,408	12,647
Total,.....	5,364,658	5,685,069	62,454	98,055	1,071	1,391

The sloop of war Vandalia, Commander Ramsey, detached from the home squadron, which, when complete, is itself wholly inadequate to the triple office of protecting our coasts, of surveying our frontier, and of aweing the English on the Bahama islands and the savages on the Mexican shores, has been for the last six months, the sole guardian of our interests on the seas which roll between the Mediterranean and the Persian Gulf. Within that period, we have suffered those injuries which, among barbarians, are always distributed among the weak. Our ships have been searched, and their property confiscated by our more civilized competitors; while by the natives they have been destroyed and their crews murdered. We put aside the question of the right of search, as treated of when we last con-

sidered this subject, but we would ask the consideration of the mercantile community more carefully to the unchastised insults we have sustained from the savages of the African coasts. "Several of our vessels," is the narration of the Secretary of the Navy, "have been captured by the natives, and their crews barbarously murdered." We assert, that when the outrages are generally known, which were committed on the schooner *Mary Carver*, Captain Farwell, in the district of Beribee, together with the similar outrages on the merchant service in the last few months, by which vessels, temporarily ashore, have been burnt and their crews put to the most cruel deaths, the prejudices in the mind of seafaring men against the African trade will be insuperable. We require a permanent squadron on the African seas. A sudden jet of strength, which should punish even most signally the offending tribes, will not be sufficient; for, among the wild and disorganized nations who inhabit those inhospitable coasts, the punishment can never be connected with the crime. The moment one force is withdrawn, some new barbarian monarch will swing into the throne of his executed predecessor, and rally his tribe to assist in the conflagration of another ship or the torture of another crew. We may continue to punish for each offence, but the idea of punishment will never be linked with the idea of retribution; and our only alternative will be, to secure the safety of our trade by the presence of a standing squadron.

The right of impressment, which forms the last subject of consideration, is no doubt only exercised in extremities. It has slumbered since the last war; but it must be remembered that, with extreme remedies as with large serpents, slumber is both the consequence of, and the preparation for, violent action. As soon as the monthly meal is gorged, the monster drops into a lethargy from which he only awakes when it becomes necessary to swallow another victim. We have no guarantee against the impressment of our whole merchant service to-morrow, should the necessities of Great Britain require it. At present she is coiled up in sleep, digesting the food which she has swallowed in the hurried meals of her European victories and her Asiatic conquests; but let her be pierced in her folds by the jealousy of either of her ancient rivals, or let the cravings of appetite goad her on once more, and she will be ready in a moment to pounce upon and devour the neutrals who may be standing in her road. It is to her forbearance in the exercise of the claim, that we are to attribute the suspension of impressment, and not to her renunciation of its principle. Holding, as the British courts do, that a citizen can never expatriate himself, we cannot conceive in what way the British queen can relinquish the right which her ancestors have uniformly exercised, of recalling, when requisite, her truant subjects. The royal hunter has but to whistle, and the whole pack is bound to appear. The privilege of impressment has been recognized by repeated decisions of English jurisprudence, by repeated edicts of English royalty it has been enumerated; and we are to thank its present withdrawal to the peace of Europe, and not to the magnanimity of Great Britain.

In the calm of present tranquillity, we are forgetting the annoyances and losses to which the exercise of impressment exposed us during the wars of the French revolution. "The injuries of impressment," wrote Mr. Webster, in his very able letter to Lord Ashburton on the subject, "are by no means confined to its immediate subjects, or the individuals on whom it is practised. Vessels suffer from the weakening of their crews;

and voyages are often delayed, and not unfrequently broken up, by subtraction of the necessary hands by impressment. And, what is of still greater and more general moment, the fear of impressment has been found to create great difficulty in obtaining sailors for the American merchant service, in times of European war. Seafaring men, otherwise inclined to enter into that service, are, as experience has shown, deterred by the fear of finding themselves ere long in compulsory discipline in the British ships of war. Many instances have occurred, fully established in proof, in which raw seamen, natives of the United States, fresh from the fields of agriculture, entering for the first time on ship-board, have been impressed before they made the land, placed on the decks of British men-of-war, and compelled to serve for years before they could obtain their release, or revisit their country and their homes."

We may be looking too exclusively on the gloomy side of the picture ; but we do say, that unless by a formidable navy we frighten our great maritime rival from an exertion of the obnoxious right, our commerce will either be degraded by an exacted tribute, or be shattered by a vindictive war. All that the Ashburton correspondence expresses is, that in a general peace impressment will not be exercised ; and what, therefore, it distinctly implies is, that in a general war it will be employed. We confess that a general war does not appear to be so improbable as the more sanguine observers of the prominent reforms of the age may believe. While, on the one hand, there is a more wide dissemination of the wiser maxims of government, it strikes us that national jealousies are increased, as commercial dealings are multiplied. The spirit of trade is, by nature, a spirit of peace ; but as it is trained and nurtured by the governments of the day, it is becoming a spirit of warfare. The ports of every commercial people are bristled with the guns of prohibitive and retaliatory tariffs, because every distinct trading-nation of the old and new world has chosen to consider and treat its sister-nations as enemies. Orders in council, and Berlin decrees, the causes of the war of 1812, have ceased ; but their places have been supplied by countervailing duties, and vindictive duties, and prohibiting duties, as hostile as their predecessors. The mutual rivalry which has prompted the exclusive legislation of Great Britain, France, Russia, the German confederacy, and the United States, will be ready, at the least provocation, to appeal to means of determination more bloody, though not more impolitic, than that which is at present in action.

The chance of a general European war is by no means so remote as to induce us to cast aside that ordinary prudence which would prevent the loss to which, under present circumstances, it would subject us. Peace, no doubt, exists between the courts of England and France ; but it is a peace as treacherous as the characteristics of the French and English people are hostile. The huge army, and the vast resources of Russia, no doubt are at present hemmed in within the banks of the reservoir which she has constructed for their nursery ; but it must be remembered that her present quiet is an earnest of nothing else but of her future activity. The fingers of England and Russia, struggling as they now are which shall grasp within their crowded hands the largest portion of Asiatic territory, will soon meet within the centre of that defenceless continent ; and when the conqueror of Russia must encounter the conqueror of the Carnatic in the plains of Middle Asia, a battle will commence which will roll back its waves upon the European shores. Great Britain would much rather fight

Chinese than Cossacks ; but it is probable that the Cossack will march into the camp of his eastern allies, and that the ponderous power of Russia will endeavor to rescue China from the grasp of her great aggressor. We believe that the geographical jealousy of Russia, and the maternal jealousy of France, will, before a great while, force England into a struggle which her prudence may induce her to defer, but which her pride will not allow her to decline. In such a war, the United States will stand as they stood in the war of the French revolution. Unflinching neutrality is our maxim, but honorable neutrality can only be maintained by maritime strength. Denmark attempted it, but Copenhagen was bombarded by Nelson. Spain attempted it, but Madrid was seized by Napoleon. We attempted it ourselves ; and had it not been for the extraordinary rapidity with which we bundled up an army from raw recruits, and huddled together a navy from old men, swept from the merchant service, and young men, hurried from their schools, we would have met with the same fate as Spain and Denmark. Such a risk we can never again afford to run, and yet it is such a risk we are provoking. The whole carrying trade of the world will be thrown into our hands, at a period when our hands will be unable to hold it. It is remarked with great truth, by the Secretary of the Navy in his late report, that to build ships in emergency is to build ships for an enemy ; for, unless a full complement of experienced officers be at hand to man them, they will be torn from us and their guns turned against our own ports. We will be placed as neutrals on the edge of a contest from whose eddies we will not be strong enough to preserve ourselves. We will be neutrals till we find we are not able to protect our neutrality ; and when we are sucked into the whirlpool as parties, we will discover that the undisciplined officers of huge but impromptu fleets will be unable to extract us from that ruin whose contingency the uniform sanction of an adequate navy would have prevented.

To congress we commend these views as declaratory of the sense of the mercantile community. The Secretary of the Navy has done what he could do ; we call upon the legislature to perfect such measures as will restore the confidence which the late innovations have shattered. By every consideration of honor and interest,—we quote from the report of the Secretary at the opening of the present session, a report which is among the wisest, as it is among the ablest, of the state-papers of the age,—we are forbidden “ to fall so far in the rear of other nations, and of the age in which we live, as to surrender our due share of the dominion of the seas. A commerce, such as ours, demands the protection of an adequate naval force ; our people, scattered all over the world, have a right to require the occasional presence of our flag, to give assurance to all nations that their country has both the will and the power to protect them. Our position among nations is such, as to leave us without excuse if we voluntarily strip ourselves of a power which all other nations are anxious to grasp. Our forms of government and municipal institutions suggest that a naval force is our safest, and, perhaps, our only defence ; and as an additional recommendation, of no small weight, the expenditure which this defence requires is to be made chiefly among our own people, encouraging their enterprise, invigorating their industry, and calling out the abundant and now almost hidden resources of our country.”

ART. IV.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF THE LATE GIDEON LEE.

AMONG the many distinguished sons of New England, she has none worthier to present to the rising generation, as a model of imitation, than he whose name furnishes the subject of this biographical notice—none who has attained to eminence with a more spotless character for integrity and uprightness, nor who discharged, in all the various duties of life, more faithfully the high requirements of a good citizen. Self-educated, and emphatically self-made, he rose to influence and distinction by the practice of those virtues which, in all time, must secure the respect and confidence of the good. He rose from poverty and obscurity to occupy, and worthily to fill, the most honorable stations in the gift of his fellow-citizens; and if a long life of great public and private usefulness, distinguished for honesty, industry, sobriety, benevolence, and, beyond this, an enthusiasm in the cause of education—of the moral and intellectual culture of the people—entitle him to be ranked as a patriot, that title is his.

To estimate truly the merit of such men, we must trace them through the struggles of early life—watch them in the dawns of success, and afterward in the full career of prosperity. Few men can bear prosperity; and fewer still enlarge their sympathies in behalf of the human family, when in possession of the means, whatever may have been their intentions in the acquisition of them.

It is, therefore, pleasant to contemplate characters that, having passed through all the vicissitudes and gradations of fortune and station, still continue true to themselves. They are the green spots in life; are honorable to humanity, and fraught with wholesome example to their successors; of a high elevation in that class, was the subject of this sketch.

GIDEON LEE was born in the town of Amherst, in the state of Massachusetts, on the 27th of April, 1778. He lost his father when quite a child, and was left to the care of his mother, of whom he always spoke in terms of the warmest affection. While yet in infancy, he went to reside with an uncle, a farmer, in whose service he discharged the humble duties of looking after the cattle, and was employed in such other occupations as were suitable to his strength and age.

Suffering taught him reflection:—"I remember," said he in after life, "when I was a lad living with my uncle, it was my business to feed and milk the cows. And many a time, long before light in the morning, I was started off, in the cold and snow, without shoes, to my work, and used to think it a *luxury* to warm my frozen feet on the spot just before occupied by the animal I had roused. It taught me to reflect, and to consider possibilities; and I remember asking myself, is it not *possible* for me to better my condition?"

After remaining some time under the care, and in the employment of his uncle, he was apprenticed to the tanning and shoemaking,—it being the practice then to conduct both branches by the same person—working at the former in the summer, and at the latter during the winter months. His genius, however, seemed better adapted to the tanning, for which department of the business he always retained a strong partiality. Up to this period his opportunities for acquiring knowledge were extremely limited: a few weeks schooling during the winter, and such books as accidentally fell in his way, were all the means vouchsafed to him. After

learning his trade, or trades, he commenced business on his own account, in the town of Worthington, Mass., and by his industry and strict attention to it, soon won the regard and confidence of his neighbors. He was enabled to obtain credit for the purchase of leather, which he manufactured into shoes, always paying promptly for it at the period he had agreed. The first hundred dollars he earned, and that he could honestly call his own, he appropriated to educating himself at the *Westfield Academy*; and when that sum was exhausted, he again betook himself to his labor. His diligence and application were remarkable, usually working sixteen hours out of the twenty-four. An anecdote, which he used to relate of himself at this period, is worthy of being told, as illustrating two traits in Mr. Lee's character, which adhered to him through life; his great industry, and his resolution. He had "made a bargain with himself," as he expressed it, to "labor each day a certain number of hours, and nothing but sickness or inability should make him break the contract. It was known to my young friends in the neighborhood, and on some convivial occasion, a quilting frolic, I believe, they came to my shop and compelled me to leave my work and go with them; there being girls also in the deputation, my gallantry could not resist. I lost my night's rest in consequence, for the morning sun found me at work, redeeming the lost time." After gratifying his *friends* by spending the evening in their society, he returned to the shop to gratify *himself*, by not violating his faith.

The great points in Mr. Lee's character developed themselves early. They were a strong love for, and veneration of, *truth*—a high sense of honor, an independent and laborious mind as well as body, a heart that embraced in its charities the physical and moral welfare of his fellows, punctuality in the discharge of *all* his duties, a love of order and of system, and an indomitable perseverance in accomplishing whatever measure he undertook, first carefully investigating and discerning its propriety or usefulness; these characteristics distinguished his whole course through life.

After prosecuting his business for some time in the manner detailed, he formed a partnership with a Mr. Hubbard; subsequently they were burned out, and he lost what little property he had accumulated. He then dissolved with his partner, and removed to the city of New York. But before establishing himself permanently there, he made a voyage to St. Marys, Georgia, taking with him some small ventures of leather, and accompanying a party who went out for the purpose of cutting live-oak timber for the United States navy.

While there he was seized with the fever of the country, from the effects of which he never entirely recovered. It undermined his health, and so shattered his constitution, that, during the whole of his subsequent life, he constantly maintained a vigilant guard on his living, regulating his food, apparel, and exercise with the greatest exactness, and watching the thermometer of his feelings and the weather, with as much care as the mariner does his compass. The adventure to St. Marys not proving a profitable one, he determined, after remaining there one winter, to return to New York. The vessel in which he took passage for home was wrecked off Cape Fear, and he barely saved himself with the few clothes he had on. Accompanied by a faithful friend named Smith, who had nursed him while sick at St. Marys, he had no other means of getting to the north than to trudge it on foot. The journey was a most tedious

and dismal one ; several days of it were through the pine barrens of North Carolina, not meeting with a house in a day's travel. Smith was a brother Yankee, and bore the hardships with great courage and good humor. Mr. Lee used to relate an anecdote of him, illustrating this latter trait, as well as the dismal character of the country through which they were travelling. "One day," said he, "we had been trudging along, nothing to be seen but the pitch pine forests, before and behind, and on both sides of us ; shoes worn out, and our feet bleeding, myself before, and Smith following after ; neither of us had exchanged a word for some time, when Smith suddenly spoke out in his nasal twang—'Mr. Lee !' 'Well, Smith, well, what is it ?' 'I wish I could hear it thunder !' 'Hear it thunder ! why do you wish so ?' 'Because they say thunder is God's voice, and if I could only hear it thunder I should know I was on God's earth ; as it is now, I don't know where I am.' "

He suffered much on this pedestrian journey ; and before reaching New York, his money, the little that he had, was exhausted. The independence, and sturdiness of his character manifested itself on an occasion toward the latter part of his travel, when wanting a supper and night's lodging, and no money to pay for them. He knocked at the door of a farmer, and after explaining his circumstances, he proposed to chop enough wood to pay for his meal and lodging ; which, being assented to by the farmer, he went to work and earned what his pride forbade him to accept as a charity.

In the year 1807, Mr. Lee married the daughter of Major Samuel Buffington, of Worthington, Mass., a distinguished soldier of the Revolution, and shortly after established himself in the city of New York, in the business in which he ultimately became so successful and eminent. He commenced in a little wooden shantee, in Ferry st., still standing, which he called "Fort Lee ;" where, as he expressed it, he "entrenched himself." The custom among the leather dealers at that day was, to sell on book account, and have annual settlements ; he adopted a different plan, and instead of selling on account, he sold at lower prices, and took notes payable in bank. This was an innovation on an ancient custom, that was looked on with disfavor by his neighbors—a revolution that they stoutly resisted. But, aided by being appointed agent for an extensive tanning establishment, styled the "Hampshire Leather Manufactory," he overcame all opposition, and laid the foundation, in the city of New York, for a branch of domestic industry which speedily rivalled the other Atlantic cities. His punctuality in the payments, and the industry and fidelity with which he discharged the duties of the agency, won the confidence of the gentlemen who were the managers of the company, and contributed to give him a credit and standing which otherwise might have taken years to obtain. His prudence and economy enabled him to accumulate means for enlarging his business ; and, but for feeble health, the future to him was a bright path of success.

In the year 1818, Mr. Lee experienced a severe domestic affliction, in the death of his wife. She was a woman of most exemplary character, of great prudence, intelligence, and judgment, and in all matters of importance, shared in his counsels and confidence.

In the fall of 1822, he was elected to the state legislature, where he distinguished himself by his close application to the business of the house, being seldom out of his place while it was in session. On the adjourn-

ment of the legislature, Mr. Lee immediately returned to his business, and devoted himself to it with his usual assiduity ; his advent into political life producing no other effect upon his habits and mode of living, than for the time interrupting them. On retiring from the legislature, in the spring of 1823, Mr. Lee was married to Isabella Williamson, daughter of the Rev. David Williamson, a clergyman of the Church of Scotland.

In 1825, he was drawn into notoriety by his proceedings, in conjunction with his partner, Shepherd Knapp, and the late Elisha W. King, in procuring an injunction against the *Tradesmens' Bank*. The popular feeling ran high for the moment, and Mr. Lee and his coadjutors asked a suspension of public opinion for a few days ; but the rapid events of those few days furnished, without a solution from them, a history of the facts. The celebrated "conspiracy trials" revealed the true situation of the bank, (which was only saved from total ruin by the course pursued,) and also exposed the rottenness of many other institutions which had crumbled to pieces in the general wreck. His resolution and firmness on that occasion merited and received the applause of his fellow-citizens ; and it was an act that he looked back upon, in after life, with sentiments of satisfaction and pride.

In 1833, Mr. Lee was elected mayor of the city, having previously served several years in the capacity of alderman. While discharging the duties of the mayoralty, he withdrew entirely from active participation in managing the business of his house, and devoted all his time and abilities to the public service. It is not our intention to speak of those services ; they are on record. It was a maxim with him, that "whatever was worth doing at all, was worth doing well." We notice, however, in the annual communications which it was his duty to make to the common council, that he never failed calling their attention to the subject of education ; it was a theme on which he never tired. His courage and energy in suppressing the "Election Riots," in the spring of 1834, at which time an attack was made on the state arsenal, is still fresh in our memory. In the fall of 1834, Mr. Lee found it necessary to return to his business, having previously declined a re-election to the mayoralty ; and from this period, he contemplated retiring from mercantile pursuits ; accordingly, he set to work winding up the affairs of his house. It was not, however, until the fall of 1836, that he felt himself in a situation to retire from its management. He then again entered into public life, and represented the city of New York in the Twenty-fourth Congress ; and was there distinguished, as he had been in every other station, for his business habits, for close attention to the interests of his constituents, and, we might also say, for making short speeches. He found influence and consideration with the house, rather by the frankness, honesty, and modesty of his deportment, than by windy speeches, intended for far different audiences. His political life may be said to have ended with the termination of the session, with an exception. He was, in 1840, chosen an elector to the electoral college, for President and Vice President of the United States.

Shortly after his return from congress, he removed to the village of Geneva, in Ontario county, where he had purchased a beautiful estate ; and, in improving and adorning it, and in the education of his children, he contemplated spending the remainder of his days. He carried with him into retirement the same active mind and habits, changing only the scene and sphere of their action. Indeed, stimulated with the belief that he had

regained permanently his health, he imprudently overtasked both ; and had but barely commenced, as he expressed it, "winding up his end of life," in the manner he had so long and so ardently desired, when death removed him from his labors. He was seized with bilious fever, accompanied by neuralgia, early in the month of July, 1841 ; and on the 21st of August succeeding, was gathered to his fathers, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, and in nearly as many of usefulness ; leaving to his family an ample fortune, the honest fruits of an industrious and well spent life.

In narrating the principal events in Mr. Lee's life, we have aimed at brevity and conciseness, in order to bring it within the limits assigned to biographical notices in this Magazine. But there is a moral to be drawn from the history of such a character, and it is a useful one. Mr. Lee had obtained a reputation at home, and a name, not unfrequently pronounced with respect, abroad. Why was it so ? Thousands, born to poverty, have died in the possession of great wealth ; thousands, that have first seen the light in obscurity and wretchedness, have risen to eminence and high distinction ; thousands, whose early years have been locked up in intellectual darkness, have attained to the highest rank in literature and the sciences. These instances are of frequent occurrence, particularly in our own country ; yet they do not occur often enough. The instances, after all, are too unfrequent. When we look around us and see the countless opportunities which everywhere offer themselves to the enterprising, the industrious, the frugal, our surprise is excited, not that a few succeed, but that more do not. What is there, then, in the history of Mr. Lee, that entitles him to distinction, and from whose life and example, a useful moral may be drawn ? Much—very much. It was his *misfortune* (if, indeed, it be one,) to be born poor ; it was his *merit*, by industry and perseverance, to acquire wealth. It was his *misfortune* to be deprived of an education when young ; it was his *merit* to force it in maturer age. It was his *misfortune* to be without friends in his early struggle, to aid him by their means or counsel ; it was his *merit* to win them in troops, by conduct that challenged all scrutiny.

Mr. Lee was a true republican ; he wanted all men to stand on as high a platform as he did himself. This led him to take, early in life, so lively an interest in the cause of popular education. The common school system, which denies its blessings to none, was always an object of deep solicitude to him. "Education, give the people education, if you wish to give them morals ; it is impossible to acquire them without ;" was a frequent exclamation of his. When in the board of aldermen, he took a leading part in procuring the enactment of the law, by which the tax is levied for the support of the common school society. His course on that question, and the exertions he made, were always agreeable subjects of reflection to him.

Decision and energy, in carrying out his plans, peculiarly marked his character ; no labor, no pains, were spared ; but all movements resulted from reflection and discussion. His rule was, never to undertake any measure of importance until he had deliberately weighed and canvassed it, either with others or with himself ; and having resolved, the rest was action—no looking back, no vascillation. "I have but one life to live," he would exclaim ; "time is one of the few things that cannot be purchased. I may have come to a wrong conclusion, but I cannot go back now ; I have resolved, and I must advance." His mind, however, was ever open to conviction ; rarely to persuasion, where it ran counter to his

judgment. As an instance of his decision, when he commenced business in New York, on his return from the south, his health impaired and feeble, yet still compelled to labor by the strong law of necessity—"I remember," said he, "one day, while lifting and piling up leather, my strength failed me, and I fell on the floor. I wept. My spirits were so broken by the thought that I *must die* in the day-spring of life, and leave my family unprovided for; it seemed to be so cruel a fate. I got home and sent for my physician. He was a man of sound sense, and knew me well. I asked him if he thought I could recover? 'Why, yes, if you choose.' 'Well, I do choose.' 'Then send that library of yours to the auction, that will stop your reading; eat a fresh beefsteak every day, and with it, drink a glass of brown stout; buy yourself a horse.' 'Why, doctor, I am unable to incur the expense.' 'Then die; for die you will, if you don't do so.' I sent every book in my possession, except the Bible, immediately to the auction. I bought an old horse, and lived as he had directed. I did not suffer myself for years to *look* into a book, nor did I omit to take my exercise each day. I gradually got better, but I had a long and tedious time of it." The truth was, the doctor discovered that, what with his thirst for knowledge, and his laborious application to his business, it was impossible for him to get up.

No man more thoroughly despised trickery in trade, and he used to remark—"no trade can be sound that is not beneficial to both parties; to the buyer as well as to the seller. A man may obtain a temporary advantage by selling an article for more than it is worth; but the very effect of such operations must recoil on him, in the shape of bad debts and increased risks." A person with whom he had some transactions, once boasted to him that he had, on one occasion, obtained an advantage over such a neighbor, and upon another occasion, over another neighbor; "and to-day," said he, "I have obtained one over you." "Well," said Mr. Lee, "that may be; but if you will promise never to enter my office again, I will give you that bundle of goat-skins." The man made the promise, and took them. Fifteen years afterwards, he walked into Mr. Lee's office. At the instant, on seeing him, he exclaimed: "You have violated your word; pay me for the goat-skins!" "Oh!" said the man, "I am quite poor, and have been very unfortunate since I saw you." "Yes," said Mr. Lee, "and you always will be poor; that miserable desire for over-reaching others, must ever keep you so."

Mr. Lee, for many years, resided at his countryseat in Bloomingdale. In the rage for speculations in real estate, he was importuned to sell his place; he named a price for it to a friend, who immediately purchased it; the sum was not the half of what he readily could have obtained. He was much annoyed by the remarks of gentlemen, who spoke to him on the subject. "I asked," said he, "for it, what it has cost me; it is all that the place is intrinsically worth, and I am satisfied. I have acquired what property I possess, in fair legitimate trade; I have no desire hereafter to be reproached with having participated in the speculations now going on. Some one must lose money by them; it shall never be said any of it went into my pocket. In ten years time, and perhaps less, it will fall back to the price I have obtained for it."

In the year 1834, the memorable panic year, a report was put in circulation that his house had failed. In allusion to the report, he remarked: "I commenced business, when poor, on credit. I thrived by credit; and

I hold it to be my duty to sacrifice my property down to twenty shillings in the pound, before that credit shall be dishonored. *I have carried the lapstone, and I can do it again*; but I will never suffer a promise of mine to be broken, while I have a shilling left that I can call my own."

Mr. Lee's devotion to business did not spring from the love of wealth; he had no ambition to be called a rich man. He set a proper and just estimate on the value of money, and desired it as a means, not as an end. His purse, even when he could but ill afford it, was ever open to the well authenticated calls of charity; and to institutions intended to advance the progress of mind or morals of the people, he never turned a deaf ear. Few men in the community have extended to young men so liberal and sustaining a hand, or who have established so many in business—no petty jealousies in his trade—frequently remarking, "the more that can be supported by it, the better." He took great interest in collecting statistics, in bringing to bear upon his business the "science of trade," the experiments and investigations of philosophy. Political economy was his favorite study, and in all his operations he took large and comprehensive views, and in his deductions and conclusions looked rather to principles, the condition of the nation, its measure of value, its consumption and productive abilities; and by his circulars and lectures, disseminating the fruits of his experience, his studies and speculations. Whatever he deemed worthy of reading, was *well read*; his books are filled with annotations and marginal remarks; and he possessed that happy faculty of abstracting his mind from every other consideration, and bending all its energies to the subject which for the time engaged his attention. He seemed to have acquired a complete mastery in this particular, and without the least apparent effort, could change it from one subject to another with the utmost facility. His perseverance in accomplishing whatever he undertook to perform, was most remarkable: no labor of detail or tediousness of research balked or stopped him, and he rarely failed in arriving at the result he wished. Much of his success flowed from the *pertinacity* with which he prosecuted his plans; his order, system, division of time, and allotment of labor and exercise. Each day's work, as far as practicable, was planned the preceding one. In fact, he made "life a business," every hour having its appropriate duties; and he so lived that each night found him with the business of the day finished. His correspondents were punctually answered, his papers regularly filed, and his accounts (even with the day laborers on his estate) posted up to the evening preceding his last illness, every article in its proper place, and a place for everything. Without this system and regularity, indeed, he could have accomplished but a tithe of his projects.

Another feature which marked Mr. Lee's character, was punctuality in his attendance at the time and place. For many years he rarely failed arriving at his office at the appointed instant, and departing from it also at the appointed instant; and in his engagements with others, they never found him either absent or behind the time. An hour lost was prodigality.

In his dying charge to his sons, he enjoined them always to "fill up the measure of time." "Be," said he, "always employed profitably in doing good, in building up; aim to promote the good of yourselves and of society; no one can do much good without doing some harm, but you will do less harm by striving to do good; be industrious, be honest." These were the last intelligible words he uttered, and were as characteristic as they were worthy of him.

Of one who thus lived, it will create no surprise to be informed that he was prepared to die. Death did not find him a reluctant or unwilling voyager to his dark domains. At his beckoning, he laid down his plans and cares with cheerfulness and pious resignation to the divine will, and sank with calm dignity to his last repose, with a grateful heart for all the blessings and mercies he had experienced. "Mountains," said he, with expressive energy, "Mountains of mercy have been piled on me." And in reply to the question, "are you willing to go?" "Yes said he, yes; I should like to stay with you a little longer, to finish some work begun; but if it is the pleasure of God that I should die now, I am ready to go." He died full of faith and hope, in the promises of his Redeemer.

The lamp of life of such men cannot be extinguished without casting around a gloom; their absence from society creates a void that must be ever felt. They may leave no blazing reputation to dazzle or astonish, but they leave one that distributes its warning and invigorating influences wherever virtue has a friend, or philanthropy an advocate. L.

To Freeman Hunt, Esq., Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.

SIR:—The following Address is first presented to you for publication, with the hope that the extensive circulation which your Magazine has, will present it to a class of readers who take a deep interest in the subjects of which it treats. It was prepared under the direction of the HOME LEAGUE, lately convened in this city;* and having received the sanction of their Central Committee, is now submitted for consideration. Under the influence of free discussion, permitted, and even invited by you, it is likely to be placed alongside articles diametrically opposed to the principles avowed by the writer, and the Association to which he is attached. So much the better; the public will be more able to decide upon their respective merits. *Magna est veritas et prevalabit.* Yours, respectfully,

C. C. H.

ART. V.—HOME LEAGUE TO THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES.

FELLOW-CITIZENS:—When a country gifted as ours has been by the beneficent bounties of Providence, possessing every advantage of soil, climate, free institutions, and the blessings of profound peace, finds itself arrested in its onward career, its commerce languishing, its agricultural products a burden, its internal improvements suspended, its manufacturing and laboring classes without adequate employment, and the credit of the general government, as well as that of many of the states, crippled or repudiated, it is certainly the duty, as well as the privilege of an Association,

* The Annual Convention of the HOME LEAGUE took place in this city, agreeably to the notice given in a former Magazine, on the 13th October last. The election of officers was as follows:—President, Gen. James Tallmadge, New York; First Vice President, Governor Mahlon Dickerson, New Jersey; Second, James Brewster, Connecticut; Third, Dr. J. W. Thompson, Delaware; Fourth, Horner Denny, Pennsylvania. Recording Secretary, L. D. Chapin; Corresponding do., T. B. Wakeman; Treasurer, Wm. G. Lambert; of New York. Central Committee or Council, Joseph Blunt, C. C. Haven, A. Chandler, J. D. P. Ogden, John Campbell, of New York city; Samuel Oakley, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Joseph Burden, Troy, N. Y.; Charles S. Morgan, Virginia; John S. Riddle, Philadelphia, Pa.; Joseph Grinnell, Allen Putnam, of Massachusetts; Wm. B. Kenny, New Jersey.

constituted as the Home League is, to present their views to the public with the hope of remedying some of the existing evils. Were our labors merely confined to sectional views, to the advancement of one portion of national interests in preference of any other, we might be suspected of narrow and selfish motives; but our principles and proceedings are known to be the reverse of these. Several conventions have been held in this city, composed of delegates from every section of the country interested in the protection of American labor, and the advancement of our home concerns. In all their discussions, animated by a spirit of patriotic investigation, impartial but not neutral, they have endeavored to enlighten the public mind with arguments based on facts, statistically deduced, rather than by abstract theories. The information sought for by some of the representatives in congress, but refused, through the influence of party vassalage, has been obtained by us and placed before the people. This information, it is believed, was eminently serviceable in the formation of the tariff now in operation; and were that measure allowed to exert its beneficial influence, undisturbed by sectional and party warfare, we should scarcely deem it necessary, at this time, to continue our labors.

But our country is lamentably divided by local preferences, produced, in some measure, by seemingly antagonistic interests. The machinations of political aspirants, aided by foreign and sectional influences, have a constant tendency to paralyze the free action of the people, and to subvert the public good. The abstruse dogmas of political economy, under the specious name of free trade, are artfully combined with party-creeds and official promises, so as to seduce our countrymen to throw away their elective franchise for that which profiteth them nothing. Thus our national interests are prostituted, and one would almost suppose we were scarcely able to walk without the aid of party leading-strings or foreign crutches. To be really free, sovereign, and independent, to esteem national defence as much a right as that of individuals, to have a home and a policy of our own, deserving of our regard and protection, is rather deemed transcendental. We find popular leaders, and many of the public presses, daily warring against the protecting policy as an infringement on the constitution, and inconsistent with their enlightened notions of changing the selfish nature of man, and of revolutionizing the world by a universal non-resisting free trade. That which is known to be an imposture, professed, but never practised by England and now, virtually repudiated by her, as well as abandoned by France, Russia, Germany, and nearly all the independent sovereignties in Europe, is adhered to by us as the "world's last hope." We become vain of wearing the cast off livery of foreign states, and the enemies of popular government exult in scorn to see how easily we are cajoled by them. To combat this fatal delusion, and to exhibit the history, principles, and policy of protection, as connected with our home interests, we shall now proceed to fulfil the duties assigned us by the members of the Home League.

Among the resolutions which were passed at our late Anniversary were the following, to which we respectfully request your attention:—

Resolved, That our first duty as American citizens is a preference to the country which is the land of our birth or the home of our choice; and that we are bound steadfastly to maintain those principles which will advance its prosperity. One of these principles, we believe to be, that of fostering all the industrial pursuits and useful arts that may tend to our support and independence as a nation. This Convention, therefore, openly takes

the ground that all the revenue necessary for an economical and liberal administration of the government should be levied by discriminating duties for the protection of American industry, the encouragement of the useful arts, and the support of our national independence.

Resolved, That any policy by which adequate protection to American interests is to be subverted, would be a violation of the privileges now accorded to the industrious and enterprising citizens whose capital and labor are involved in the mutual interests of agriculture, manufactures, and mechanical pursuits; and would, moreover, be an infraction of that trust reposed in our government, which is so essential to bind the people and the states to the Union.

Resolved, That this Convention, in common with the free industrial classes throughout the country, approve the general principle of protection for the sake of protection, not incidental, nor horizontal, and least of all, accidental; but a liberal, well-digested, and whatever its imperfections, most acceptable tariff, being now passed, without compromise, by the independent votes of the friends of home industry, it will be our determined and most zealous aim to guard it from repeal, or the insidious attacks of hireling presses in foreign interest, and from being sacrificed by sectional or political enemies, or "base, revolting" friends.

Resolved, That as the example of the United States in offering reciprocal treaties, upon free trade principles, has been counteracted by a narrow system of foreign policy, favoring some portion of our home products to the great disparagement of others, and has been decidedly prejudicial to the general interests of the country, it is due to our national honor and welfare to be just in regard to our own states as well as friendly to foreign nations; and without abandoning a liberal spirit of international trade, we ought to maintain our own essential rights, and foster the growth and independence of our own country, in preference to any other.

Resolved, That the protection and promotion of the arts of peace constitute an integral part of the strength and sovereignty of a nation, and deserve, as a defence, the patronage of government as much as navies or standing armies. It is the decided opinion, therefore, of this Convention, that our country requires the formation of a HOME DEPARTMENT devoted to the industrial interest of the country, including those of agriculture, commerce, manufactures, mining, the fisheries, and internal improvements, which, in connection with commissioners of the customs, should steadily furnish reports to congress and the country at large, by which our legislators may be enlightened and our citizens generally be benefitted.

Resolved, That the members of this Convention, representing the united Home League of the whole country, disclaim, as they have ever done, a blind allegiance to any party; but, uniting with the independent and true friends of home interests of all parties, they seek to advance the general welfare of the whole country by the diffusion of patriotic sentiments and the practice of inalienable American principles.

Resolved, That a great change in public opinion having been brought about by the statistical facts and arguments published by the Home League Association, we now urge on the Central Committee the continuance of such publications. We wish farmers, especially, to see the value of our home market for those agricultural products they cannot send abroad without paying from 100 to 1,000 per cent more duties than are levied on imports taken in exchange for them, and we want our citizens generally to understand the fact, that protection is not for the benefit of monopolists at home, but to defend us against those abroad; for, with our home market secure against excessive imports of such goods as we can and ought to manufacture, every such article, *amply protected*, will become cheaper by the effect of home competition, and thus put an end to smuggling, as well as foreign rivalry.

Resolved, That a union of education and labor, is as advantageous to a young nation desirous to introduce the useful arts, as schooling and learning a trade is among the enterprising young men of an industrious community. The expense of introducing skill and costly experiments to obtain perfection in any mechanical and manufacturing pursuits, should be indemnified by those who are benefited by it; and if our country is enriched by successful appropriations of individual capitalists for these objects, it is for its interest to protect them, or, at least, to pay the cost of learning the trades which enterprise and ingenuity have introduced.

Resolved, therefore, That protection is right in principle as well as practice. Every nation that adopts this policy advances in civilization and independence; all who neglect and abandon it, either remain poor and ignorant, or retrograde into barbarity.

Resolved, That we recommend to all our fellow-citizens who wish to see our own laboring men well-educated, well-clothed, and well-fed, to give preference to fabrics made

at home by our own freemen, rather than to use imported luxuries for the maintenance of unfortunate foreign serfs.

Resolved, That the interests of agriculture and manufactures are one and indivisible, as demonstrated alike by the experience of our own and the history of other countries; that the importance of the home market, created by manufacturing, is strikingly exemplified by the fact, that the prices of land, of bread-stuffs, and provisions, were doubled during the operation of the tariff policy; and although the exportation of the two latter has been diminished by foreign restrictions, the home consumption has vastly increased.

Resolved, That while the immense contractions of our currency within the last few years, inevitably causing a reduction of the prices of all products, has necessarily reduced the money prices of labor, we rejoice to believe and know that, as soon as the new tariff shall have had time to exert its fair and full effect in giving activity to business and steady employment to industry, the general condition of the laboring classes will be sensibly and permanently improved, and the actual reward of labor increased, whatever its money price shall be.

Resolved, That it is hereby recommended to the friends of the protection of home labor throughout the Union, to press the importance of this subject upon the attention of the laboring men of the country in every practicable manner, and to require of the candidates for congress especially, express and unequivocal avowals of their soundness on this question, and their determination to consider it secondary to no other interest, but to uphold faithfully the principle and policy of protection.

Such, fellow-citizens, are some of the leading principles and condensed arguments of the Association, which now authorises us to address you. Before presenting our views in connection with them more fully, we deem it of some importance to give a brief statement of the origin and progress of what is called the protective policy in the United States.

Its history may be told in few words. There has been nothing constant in it, but change; nothing settled, but to keep it the bleeding victim of party warfare. Although entitled to boast of being first among our legislative enactments, the favored offspring of the Fathers of the Constitution, its claim to legitimacy has been, of late, boldly questioned. To repudiate it, has been the settled policy of those who first warmly espoused its adoption. The extremes of the Union have changed sides in regard to it. Its first friends were from the south; its earliest enemies, those at the north; who, at last, convinced of its advantages, now faithfully advocate its permanency. The middle states, alone, have been its constant supporters. The west, generally, is in its favor; but her representatives have not uniformly voted for it, without some political compromise. Whilst, however, it has thus been always clearly espoused by a majority of the states, and been sanctioned by the delegated sovereignty of the people, as expressed by all their presidents, from the days of Washington to the present time, (except the elder Adams, and he, we believe, was not opposed to it,) yet such has been the effects of party manœuvring and political log-rolling, that either by direct attacks or cunning abstractions, its energies have been crippled, and its very existence now remains an accident. A tariff, it is true, has at length been passed, which acknowledges the principles of discriminative protection incidental to obtaining a revenue, but nothing is more certain than that nothing is yet decided as to its being continued; and under the influence of political inebriety, and vacillating legislation, no dependence can be placed upon it. We consider, therefore, the protective policy as completely unsettled now, as it ever has been. Its enemies still keep possession of the field, and are recruiting new levies to repair their late defeat; and unless greater confidence can in some way be continued, by which capitalists can have faith in the government or security for their investments, the whole fabric of our domestic industry and internal improvements must be levelled in the dust.

The temporary repudiation of the existing tariff, we regard as nothing. Friends and foes have been disappointed in their predictions of what it would produce. Those who expected a miraculous change by its enactment, as immediate and palpable as that of converting water into wine, have been sadly out of time in their calculations. If the seed, however, is not childishly pulled out of the ground ere its fibres are allowed to germinate, abundant advantages will it produce in good season for every interest in the land. Its nature is essentially life-giving and conservative, and its influence will be home-felt. It recognises, in its features, a favoring of the whole commonwealth, instead of a sectional or foreign preference; and, *with a few alterations*, may be made a standard measure by which to shape our national improvements, and secure, by a permanent revenue, adequate protection.

But permanency, we apprehend, is not the leading interest with those who control popular governments; and we fear the present, as well as any other tariff, that is fairly protective of the whole interests of the country, will be short-lived. A decided choice and action on the part of the people, will alone secure a PROTECTIVE GOVERNMENT; and without such a government the states will be like icebergs, terrible in conflict, and if divided, lost in a "sea of troubles." The election and preservation of a protective government, we look upon as the test question of the Union.

To conjecture what may be the future history of the protective system, would, under existing circumstances, be deemed idle or superfluous. New formations are now going on in the organic relations and commercial policy of the old world, the effects of which must be sensibly felt on our shores. War, with its volcanic eruptions, no longer disturbs and terrifies the nations, but peace is found to have its miseries which neither human wisdom nor fortitude can avert. Almost everything abroad seems to be going into a state of liquidation. There are premonitions in the decline and fall of states which it would be unwise in us not to be prepared for. In every way we must be affected by them; and whether the starving many, or the privileged few, are in the ascendancy; whether the stringent remedies, used to uphold their tottering existence, are to be relaxed or more rigorously enforced, this country must participate deeply in the result. There has not yet been time to form any conclusions upon the influence which our new treaty with England, and the existing tariff, will have; but we doubt not they will be beneficial.

A more serious consideration is demanded in relation to our Home connexions. The great question, whether *free* American industry shall stand or fall, is a far more exciting and momentous subject of discussion. It cannot be expected that the two extremes of northern and southern disputants about Protection, who consider their interests to be wide as the poles asunder, can easily agree on any policy, although that policy should be ultimately and mutually advantageous. The one great obstacle which kindles irreconcilable hostility, and which, the more it is attempted to be suppressed, grows into more frightful dimensions, is sure to prevent even a compromise again on the subject of a tariff. The banner of free trade is already hoisted by its uncompromising advocates at the south to obtain its sectional preferences, and the advocates and defenders of free labor in the northern, middle, and western states, seeking to protect themselves in their constitutional privileges, will not be fettered by any servile exactions. *The issue is a momentous one.* Those who have the Union to defend,

and will defend it so long as they can enjoy its advantages, will not, we think, be unwilling to have the question of protection to free labor, or the security of a reciprocal commerce, decided by the great western states, the agricultural yeomanry of the land, who are most interested in the matter. To them, then, we appeal confidently, solemnly to understand and settle this subject amicably and forever. Protection to their interests involves all that the manufacturing and free working citizens of the north and middle states ask for. Home industry and home consumption, steady and thriving occupations for our laboring classes of both sexes, the promotion of internal and foreign commerce, the advancement of all our national improvements, consistent with the security of a sound credit, encouragement to the fisheries and mining interests, and the creation of a currency for exchanges equal to specie in security, but with less risk and expense; these are some of the objects which the friends of American industry, the advocates of protection for *the whole Union*, have steadfastly and zealously asked for.

We will now proceed, with as much brevity as possible, to discuss the principles on which our advocacy of these measures are founded.

And first of all, we wish the public to understand our position. Entirely free from vassalage to any party, composed as the Home League is and has been of independent men of all parties, acting in favor of our home interests, we are not willing to be charged with being the exclusive advocates of rich monopolists merely. We are thoroughly and conscientiously convinced, by the most faithful investigation which our minds are able to give the subject, that the protective policy and an acknowledged PROTECTIVE GOVERNMENT, will conduce more to the advantage and growth of our common country, in all its interests, than any other course which can be devised. In asking protection for the free laborers of the northern and middle states, for the enterprising manufacturers of Lowell or Pittsburgh, who have risked their capital in introducing the costly improvements and machinery of Europe, to establish our own independence and industry, we do not petition for a privilege militating with the general rights of the community. To monopoly of any sort, and the influence which monopolists, foreign or domestic, strive to maintain in our country, we oppose uncompromising hostility. We wish for home competition, and our home markets to ourselves, and such connexions only with other nations as will enable us to exchange what surplus products we have for a fair equivalent, on the principle of true reciprocity, value for value; but not to be compelled to take what we do not want, or what would injure the growth of any of our essential interests, when no foreign nation will offer us any such gratuitous preference.

Again, we reject with scorn the silly notions which some impute to us, of seeking to introduce the culture of articles unsuited to our soil and climate; such as tea, coffee, spices, and the like luxuries, because we ask the fostering aid of government to establish and improve the arts of weaving, spinning, machine-making, mining, ship-building, &c., by which other governments protect the interests of their subjects. We insist that *labor is the great common staple of the whole country* deserving and needing protection—that *free labor*, especially, requires defence against the encroachments of foreign pauper labor, and the sectional preference given to the products of slave labor, as long as no market is secured for the products of the free farmers and manufacturers of the north and west. We believe that a *discriminating and impartial protection* of the most promis-

ing pursuits of industry, for all classes of our citizens, according to their respective advantages of soil, climate, and faculties, is the first duty of popular government, whereby the greatest amount of wealth and comfort will be obtained for the whole community. We think that such protection should be *ample, positive, and not vascillating*; not *incidental*, but *special*; adequate to the security and growth of whatever interest is intended to be protected. Any shifting, half-way, pretended protective policy, is no policy at all. It is a fraud on the patriotic believer in the good faith of our government; and the effect of it, as already practised, is to be seen in the halting confidence placed by our capitalists in the continuance of the present tariff. No new mills are set in motion, and many that were suspended still remain so. That protection which is merely for the sake of revenue, is as uncertain as the revenue itself, a mere mockery of the term. To the committee, who have given the subject impartial and faithful investigation, no fallacy seems so absurd as that of refusing to discriminate decidedly what objects are worthy of protection in this country, except that of refusing to protect those so discriminated. Any trifling legislation of this sort, whether by excessive, transient, or half-way duties, under the mask of friendly interest for those who ask for favors in good faith or not at all, is a reproach upon any government. Those who are stretched on this rack cannot fail to consider extinction of existence as a greater boon than such doubtful protection.

That the free trade doctrine of open ports, and an unrestricted intercourse with communities composed of moneyed monopolists and a dependent pauper population, would necessarily place our few capitalists, and free, well-conditioned, laboring classes in a direct losing competition with their foreign rivals, cannot be doubted. Let us suppose, for the sake of seeing our exact situation in such an event, that the tariff were entirely repealed; an event which seems to be desired by some, and which would not be much worse than any temporising incidental protection. The facilities of improved navigation would immediately bring us into juxtaposition with our competitors in all employments. Our wheat, flour, provisions, and other products of our soil and industry would not, to be sure, be admitted into England or other European countries, where they are prohibited, or not wanted; but their manufactures, the products of their laborers, their capitalists, would have free scope in our markets. And, under these circumstances, what would be the condition of the American laborer in his own country? Is he a manufacturer? Unless labor declined to the prices given abroad, and capital was to be obtained at English rates of interest, ruin must inevitably ensue, deluged as our markets would be with foreign fabrics. Is he a farmer? What new outlet could he have for his produce, to take the place of that steady consumption received from the hitherto protected, but now ruined manufacturers and laborers, who would be compelled, perhaps, to be his rivals instead of consumers? Is he a mechanic, or relying in any way upon his daily labor for the comforts of an independent support? Either foreign laborers would supersede him, or a reduction in the prices of his own labor, down to the standard which would be necessary to enable the manufacturers here to employ him, would take place; and thus, instead of any one growing rich by the experiment on this side the Atlantic, we should all have to strip ourselves of our abounding comforts, and become losing partners with the poor depressed operatives of foreign countries, or be compelled to work like serfs to maintain moneyed aristocracies and governments loaded with debt.

Our few capitalists who, by their superior enterprise and improvements, might be tempted to continue their works in operation, would have constantly to contend with the failing circumstances of foreign English manufacturers, broken down by the loss of their European markets, for, as long as they were selling out their goods here at a sacrifice, no American manufacturer nor joint stock company, ever so well endowed, could realize any profit. Let any one now say that we should be gainers by any change of condition like this. Are the free citizens of this country prepared to enter into partnership with a people so embarrassed? Would the country be benefitted by having London docks transferred to New York harbor, or the shops of Sheffield, Birmingham, and Manchester opened in our cities, or half a million of paupers hired by our citizens to displace as many of our own free industrious workmen? Such, however, would be the result of open ports; and such the effects of foreign influence on our Home interests, deprived of protection.

Any one may see the effect of this leveling free trade system in the present condition of our commerce and navigation, brought about by our unfortunate treaties, falsely called reciprocal. Who now monopolizes the freighting business which once supported our enterprising ship owners? Danes, Swedes, Papenburgers, Hamburgers, and others, now take and bring a great deal of what we were once the carriers of, on such terms as they can get, and which their destitution of our accustomed comforts compels them to covet. Look into our sea-ports and see the fleets of splendid packets and carrying-ships, moored without employ, matted and dismantled as during the war or embargo. Listen to the clamors of our seamen, deprived of their once liberal wages, whilst not a freight is to be obtained that will remunerate an American ship owner, for the cost of carrying it. This is the free trade policy. This it is, to embrace a community of interests with the reduced dependants of impoverished and enslaved foreign states.

Let us now take a hasty glance at the reverse of this picture. Whilst our foreign commerce, which has ever been the pet interest of the whole country, costing us untold millions to establish it by diplomacy and to defend it with our navy, in order to create occupations for our foreign carrying-trade, finds itself prostrated by the effect of that policy which merchants engaged in foreign commerce generally uphold, the rapid increase of our coasting-trade, under the influence of what may be called our navigation law, proves fully the advantage of protection. Indeed, were it not for this trade and the internal communications on our lakes and rivers, by steam and canal navigation, this country might almost as well be without its shipping interest. Their relative position is striking enough at present. Depressed as business has been of late, commerce within our own borders still goes on to an immense extent. It is not unusual to hear of vessels making voyages of fifteen to twenty days, from Buffalo to Chicago, and back, and realizing more than European freights by them; in some instances, as high as \$6,000 to \$10,000. In the Express of this city, we see one vessel reported last month, as making over \$1,500 in less than five days, from Syracuse. This branch, too, of our national thrift, is sure to increase as long as it is protected; but if the free trade notions of open ports, and free navigation for foreigners as well as ourselves, in our own waters, were to prevail, how long would it be before every coaster and steamboat would have to compete with such craft as now lays up our foreign marine?

The shipping interest, and every thing connected with our commerce on the ocean, is one of great importance; but it is in a most unprotected state, and what is worse, there does not appear to be any immediate effectual mode for protecting it. Existing treaties must be fulfilled, and prevailing prejudices, among commercial men, are not easily abandoned. For many years they have had the carrying-trade almost to the exclusion of every other flag, and, of course, were stout declaimers in favor of free trade, when free to themselves only; but now, things are changed; their foreign competitors are in the field, ravenous for a share of the spoils, and will avail themselves of the advantages which peace and free intercourse will now give them. Our ship-owners and seamen must now look at home for employ, or submit to the reduced wages and rates of freight which other carriers take. We see no other alternative.

Daily encroachments are made by England, under the sanction of treaty stipulations accorded to her, to circumvent our direct trade from the Atlantic sea-ports, by preferences to her colonial subjects, especially in Canada. Our western states are offered direct bribes, to abandon the sending their produce down our rivers, railroads, and canals; sure to find as good prices on the lakes connecting them, with British merchants privileged by their government to enter goods in England on better terms than those accorded to American shippers from our own ports. Witness the effect of a late regulation of their protective government once professing free trade so stoutly. The last steamer brings the following:—

“The Board of Trade has decided, that hams, *smoked and dried in Canada, from salted pork, imported from the United States*, are admissible at the duty of 3s. 6d. per cwt. On hams, imported direct from the United States, the duty is 14s. per cwt.”

The warehousing system recently got up in our sea-ports, and now pressed so vehemently before congress, we consider unfriendly to the protected interests generally, and not likely to benefit our shipping interest as anticipated. If all foreign vessels are allowed to bring all sorts of foreign goods and pile them up in our warehouses *ad libitum*, without paying duties, but ready to be re-exported in foreign vessels, or to take precedence in our own market whenever there is an opening, thus keeping our own manufactures in perpetual abeyance, and interfering with our own shipping interest, we do not see the advantage that our country would derive by the operation. If we must give up the sound policy of collecting the revenue by cash payments on arrival, which is the most annoying angle of our defence in the eyes of our hostile rivals, let us, at least, do it with some deference to our own interest; let our shipping interest be preferred by a discrimination which they so much need. Instead of allowing all imports the benefit of the warehousing system *on credit*, let it be allowed only to goods *imported in American vessels*, and we should like it the better if restricted also to goods on American account. Let all other imports have the advantage of, and be subjected to, the warehousing scheme, but be liable to cash duties on arrival, as at present.

We do not desire to be brought into closer alliance, and more unrestricted intercourse with those who have too much advantage over us at present. If the warehousing system would achieve one half the blessings its friends count upon, we should gladly yield to its trial, although convinced of its general impolicy. But we are satisfied it is a delusion; one of those foreign schemes applicable to England, perhaps, in her present state, but ill suited and injurious to our growing republic. As members of the Home

League, advocating the policy of protection for *all* our home interests, we should deplore the abandonment of the present system of cash duties, as inconsistent with a wise and liberal economy. But if the warehousing plan is to be introduced, we trust it will be placed on a footing in connexion with our coastwise regulations, *protective to our own navigation*, and not on the plan of what are called reciprocal treaties, yielding our own rights to foreigners by sacrifices of our own offering.

In proceeding further to discuss the policy of protection, it is due to the agricultural interest not to omit the claims which our farmers and northern producers have, upon a fair share of discrimination, in their favor. To them, the security of the home market for consumption is not only all-important, but a steady outlet for their surplus products should be secured. The sectional preference now existing in favor of the products of the south, cannot fail to be considered by the free and hardy yeomanry of the northern and western states, as partial to those who live under a milder sky, and have certain chartered privileges of which they are naturally tenacious. Our free workingmen cannot fail to view the advantage derived by slave labor, in any other light than a grievous monopoly. However constitutional it may be, they will so consider it; and unless the protecting arm of government is allowed to be extended for their relief, without exciting the invidious reproaches of our southern brethren, it should not be expected that they will be contented. If, as has been stated, labor is the great common staple of the country, which is everywhere entitled to protection, free labor is pre-eminently so, as constituting the vital element of our free institutions. The free farmer asks for a market for his wheat at a price equivalent to supporting him as a freeman, without seeking relief from poor laws, or employing slaves to till his lands. The free mechanic, also, who helps to sustain the farmer by consuming his produce, demands the right of making and selling his shoes, shovels, or other articles he is most expert in making, without being interfered with by the import of foreign fabrics, paid for by the exports of cotton. He wishes to work and maintain himself and family; but *in an open market* this is impossible, without coming down to the level of slave or pauper labor. Here, then, we see that free trade and free labor are incompatible, without reducing the freeman to the bare rates of subsistence accorded to the slave or serf.

Now, neither the farmer nor mechanic are contented to be disfranchised and debarred the privileges of freemen, whilst a portion of their own countrymen, possessing a sure market for the products of their slaves, deny them the right of living by free labor, unless reduced to the degradation of working for the same miserable subsistence allowed to slaves. Even viewed constitutionally, the owner of a thousand slaves, *chattels of industry*, or labor-saving machines, as they are called at the south, has surely no more right to be protected than the free farmer with a thousand cattle, or the free manufacturer with a thousand looms, *chattels of industry*. All are alike objects of protection; and whether planter, farmer, or manufacturer, are entitled to equal privileges. Any attempt to reduce the wages of the freeman to the servile standard, or to measure his rights by those of the slave, is preposterous, and not to be tolerated.

But it is not our object, in thus placing this most delicate question in a bolder view than usual, to deny any right of security or protection to that portion of our fellow-citizens who are supported by the peculiar privileges constitutionally enjoyed by them. But it is to combat their denial of simi-

lar protection to those, whose industry, skill, and enterprise, require it at the north, and in the middle and western states. Protection is due to all—we mean adequate, positive protection, whether it is by a favoring climate, or a peculiar chartered grant, or a discriminating tariff. Wherever labor, the great element of our growth and independence as a nation requires security and encouragement, there, the protecting hand of government should be stretched out with wise beneficence. Let this principle be adopted and steadily adhered to, and there will be an end to any invidious interference of one portion of our citizens with the rights and privileges of the other. We urgently entreat our southern friends seriously to take this view of the subject, so momentous in its consequences, and not to countenance their governors and statesmen in using such terms as *robber and pirate*, towards the free farmer and manufacturer who asks only for a fair share of the protective fabric of government which he helps build up and support. We entreat them to weigh well and not slightly, the value of our glorious Union, worthy in itself of all protection, but whose very existence depends upon the maintenance of free labor, free discussion, and free principles. It will be well if these considerations are received calmly, impartially, and with patriotic feelings. In such a light only, are they now presented.

Before closing our remarks in favor of the principles and policy of protection, we must be permitted to say a few words in favor of establishing A HOME DEPARTMENT of the government, which, in connexion with the commissioners of the custom-house, we deem to be highly expedient. In the present changing and unsettled condition of all commercial states, seeking in every way to prefer their own interests, there is no way to guard our essential privileges and to maintain our independence, but by exercising the keenest vigilance, and understanding what is for our own benefit. Our general policy is essentially pacific. And whilst we admit the propriety of maintaining special departments for war and state concerns, we see no reason why the paramount relations of trade, agriculture, internal improvements, and domestic industry, should be left unprovided with an efficient and permanent bureau of superintendence devoted to our home interests. We trust the government will, therefore, speedily be provided with an agency for this purpose. Such an establishment could not be considered as a useless expense. It would more than repay the cost, in seeking out and defending new channels for the enterprise and industry of our citizens, and in protecting us from hasty and vacillating legislation, subversive of all permanent prosperity. In the language of the present Secretary of the Navy, we assert that, "the wealth of a nation does not consist in the quantity of gold it may have in its treasury; the economy of a nation is not shown, only in the smallness of its expenditures. It is rich, only in proportion as its people are rich; and it is economical, only so far as it applies the public money to uses more valuable to the people who pay it, than the money itself. This is but another name for national thrift; but is the only sense in which national economy is of any value." A HOME DEPARTMENT, acting upon these principles, and A PROTECTIVE GOVERNMENT, wisely discriminating in the choice of pursuits for the exercise of the industry, intelligence, and enterprise of the people, furnishing steady occupation and security to all, would soon render the United States rich, powerful, and independent. Our union would thus be preserved; the high destiny we aspire to, be attained; and our country would long enjoy the proud distinction of being free, sovereign, and independent.

ART. VI.—RISE AND FALL OF THE GREAT LAKES.

THE sudden depression of these extensive bodies of water to such a degree as to affect injuriously the great commerce which, within a few years, has grown upon them, has attracted the attention and employed the pens of not a few of our writers for periodicals. Its cause has been sought in a great variety of facts, partly imaginary and partly real; so that the theories of different writers have varied according to the varying fertility of imagination of their authors.

One thing is plain. If all the evaporation from these lakes, and the country having its drainage into them, were again returned to them in showers, they would neither rise nor fall to any considerable extent. They would receive back, at short intervals, all the moisture taken up from them; and no rise or depression could possibly be extended to a series of several years. Whence, then, do they receive their accumulation of waters? It must come from beyond their own basin, and it must be brought over and within its outer margin *as vapor*; which, being there condensed into rain, falls into it. It cannot come from the Atlantic, for, in that direction, a range of high mountains intervenes, to intercept the ocean vapors in their course toward the lakes. It cannot come from the north, for in that direction, and at no great distance, is also a range of mountains, which cannot fail to intercept the vapors that might otherwise reach the lake-valley from Hudson's bay. From the northwest and west, coming as the wind does from a wide extent of land of great elevation and low temperature, it cannot be reasonably expected to arrive laden with much vapor. There remain, then, but two courses to which we can look for the increase of the waters of these inland seas, to wit: *the northeast, and the southwest*. It would be natural to expect the greatest accession from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, because it is a part of the same valley, and therefore its vapor could be carried into the interior with least obstruction; but when we bear in mind that the St. Lawrence river is flanked on each side by mountain ranges of considerable extent and elevation, which are calculated to impede and attract the aqueous vapor driven along their sides, we cannot suppose that much of it will reach the upper lakes, lying nearly six hundred feet above. A residence of eleven years on the border of Lake Erie has fully satisfied the writer, that but a small amount of water is brought by northeast winds from the Gulf of St. Lawrence as far inland as that lake. These winds, instead of bringing an accession of water to the lakes, in passing over them on their way to the region lying westward, carry off their evaporation to the basin of the Mississippi. The western margin of the lake-basin opposes no barrier to the passage over it of aqueous vapor. Its elevation at one point (near Chicago) is but some twenty feet above the surface of the water, and is nowhere high enough to arrest or impede the passage of clouds over it. Its distance, in some places but a few miles, in but few points reaches one hundred miles. The wind has been known to blow from the northeast for five or six days in succession without bringing rain; but on its shifting to any point from west to north, showers, sometimes for several days, and very copious, are brought back by it. These showers we attribute to the vapors that have been carried west of us, and that are brought back and condensed by the cold winds of the west. It is plain, that when easterly winds prevail, the evaporation of the great lakes

must be carried beyond the western margin of their drainage; and that so much thereof as is not brought back again by westerly winds before it is condensed into rain, must be entirely lost to the lake-valley. Hence, the years or succession of years in which easterly winds are most prevalent, will be nearly identical with those which exhibit the greatest depression of the lakes. The unusual prevalence of easterly winds for several years past is, it is believed, a fact notorious to the observing residents of the St. Lawrence basin. We have said that accessions of water to our valley are not to be expected from the north; but it does not follow that the winds from that point may not carry away what properly belongs to us. The remarks made in regard to the westerly margin of the lake-basin, will apply with equal force to its southern outline. From Chataouque county, in the State of New York, (where the dividing ridge between the St. Lawrence and Mississippi valleys is but seven miles from Lake Erie,) to Fort Wayne, at the head of Maumee river, one hundred miles from the same lake, there is a gradual subsidence in height from seven hundred feet, at the former place, to less than two hundred feet at the latter. From Fort Wayne westward, this dividing highland rises one hundred and fifty feet, and then gradually subsides to the neighborhood of the south end of Lake Michigan, where, as before stated, it is but some twenty feet above the level of the lake. Thus it is shown, that there is scarcely any barrier on the south to prevent the north winds from carrying the vapors of the lakes from their own basin into that of the Mississippi. This is true, in a remarkable degree, of the great Lake Michigan, the southern margin of whose basin is but a few miles distant, and rises but just above the surface of its waters. The prevalence, then, of easterly, northerly, and westerly winds may depress, but cannot elevate, the lakes; we have, then, only to look to the south and southwest for a source of supply capable of keeping up, and raising above their ordinary height, these great inland seas. Nor shall we look in vain. The same trade-wind that piles up the waters in the Gulf of Mexico, so as to produce that remarkable oceanic current called the Gulf-stream, diverted from its western course by the highlands of Central America and Mexico, is forced northward and northeastward, bearing on its wings the tepid exhalations of the tropical waters of the Gulf of Mexico, over and beyond the level countries of the central Mississippi valley into the basin of the lakes. These warm vapors are all condensed, either on their passage or after entering the lake-basin, by the cold winds which are ever ready to break in upon them from the high regions of the west and northwest. From the gulf to the lowest summits, separating the valley of the lakes from that of the Mississippi, the rise does not exceed six hundred feet, although the distance is near one thousand miles. The country between is nearly a perfect inclined plane, rising from the gulf, on an average of nine inches to the mile. This very gradual elevation, it is obvious, opposes the least possible obstruction to the passage of aerial vapors. These are borne along by the constant pressure of the trade-wind from the south, until they reach, and pass over, the outer margin of the lake-valley. This southerly wind would, from its cause being permanent, be unceasing in its flow, were it not occasionally turned aside by stronger currents from the northwest and northeast. It not only warms and waters the great valley of the Mississippi, and thereby redeems it from what it would otherwise be—a great interior desert—but it irrigates and vivifies with its heat the borders of the great lakes, and keeps filled, with some slight variations al-

most to the brim, these immense reservoirs of the north. The deflection of the trade-wind, here spoken of, from its western course to a northerly direction up the North American valley, may to some appear a mere theory; but the writer believes, that from the time of the publication of the travels of Count Volney, who advanced this theory, to the present day, the observations of the residents of the western country have tested and confirmed its truth. Here, then, we have a cause, and that amply sufficient to account for the rise, through a series of years, of the great lakes. The prevalence, much greater in some years than in others, and often for a succession of years, of southerly winds, is attested by all the old and observing inhabitants of the west with whom we have conversed. It is believed, too, that a very low stage of water, of long continuance, in the streams of the Mississippi valley, always coincides with, or precedes but a year or so, a decided decadence of the lakes. The Board of Public Works of the State of Ohio, in their report of Dec. 30, 1839, express the opinion, that the quantity of water which had fallen the two preceding years "did not exceed one-third of the minimum quantity usually obtained for a series of years." This remark applied to the Licking-summit reservoir, and the surrounding country. The waters of the lakes became stationary, or, as some say, began to fall, in the summer of 1839, since which time they have constantly receded.

Great diversity of opinion has existed as to the amount of difference between their extreme stages. In this, it is believed, each lake differs from the others. Ontario, if we can rely on the testimony of experienced engineers, has varied not less than eight feet. We believe, that five feet will embrace the whole rise and fall of Lake Erie. If we suppose the greater lakes above to witness changes as considerable, we are strongly impressed with the magnitude of the causes necessary to produce an effect so striking and wonderful.

What effect on the commerce of our great mediterranean waters, a continued depression of their surface might occasion, would afford a subject of speculation more curious, perhaps, than useful. Captain Jonathan Carver, one of the first Englishmen that navigated the upper lakes, states in his book of travels, that a small vessel of about forty tons, in which he took passage, at the head of Lake Michigan, for Detroit, was unable to pass over the St. Clair flats, for want of water; and that the usual way of doing business at that time, (about eighty years ago,) between those flats and Detroit, was by small boats. It is likely that this vessel drew as much as six feet water; the models of those days having much less beam in proportion to their depth, than the greatly improved style of construction of the present time. It seems probable, that to obviate the difficulty of shoal water on St. Clair flats, and in most of our lake harbors, which will be increasing every year by gradual deposits at their entrance, iron steamers, and iron sailing-vessels of light draught, will be substituted for the heavy, and, comparatively, clumsy structures now in use. The time may not be so distant as most people imagine, when iron steamers will leave our wharves, laden with the interior riches of the great country in our rear; and, without discharging cargo, or breaking bulk on their way, terminate their voyages at New York and Quebec.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

For reasons hinted at in our last number, there has been, during the month which has since elapsed, a continued plenteousness of money at low rates. It is easily procured at 6 per cent interest on leading paper, and 4 and 5 per cent for temporary loans, or placed at call with well-known and substantial firms. The demand for money has fallen off in some degree, in consequence of the closing of the inland navigation having stopped the passage of produce to market, and the onerous nature of the existing tariff, obstructing the movements of commercial houses. The requirements of the new tariff, more particularly in relation to the payment of cash duties, are more ruinously oppressive than any pre-existing commercial regulations. In this country capital is scarce in almost all occupations, and in commercial pursuits in particular. The number of commercial houses possessed of capital, beyond what they can profitably employ in their own immediate business, is exceedingly limited; and such being the case, it is incumbent upon the government, if it undertake to interfere at all in commercial matters, so to regulate its fiscal concerns as to give to individual capital and enterprise its fullest play, and to encroach in the smallest possible degree upon the movements of trade. The government itself being needy, and with expenditures largely in excess of its revenue, cannot be expected to loan capital to any class of citizens, either in the shape of direct loans, or by giving credit for taxes due; nor should it, on the other hand, compel merchants, with small means, to advance to the treasury the taxes imposed upon consumable goods before those goods are purchased for consumption. This latter, however, is the effect of the late law. Firms of limited means, on the receipt of a consignment from abroad, are obliged to raise a sum in cash equivalent to the face of the invoice, in order to effect the entry. This cannot be readily done, and, consequently, the whole imports concentrate in the hands of those wealthy firms who can command the means; thereby promoting a monopoly, circumscribing the amount of business done, and diminishing the call for money for commercial purposes. Hence the increased amount of money seeking temporary employment or investment in the soundest stocks. In stock investments there has been considerable more spirit evinced during the past few weeks, and prices have improved; more particularly for New York state and city. The following is a table of the rates of the leading stocks in the New York market at different periods:—

PRICES OF LEADING STATE STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

STOCK.	Rate of In. Redeem.		1841.			1842.		
	Interest.	able.	Aug. 30.	Mar. 1.	Ap. 15.	Aug. 1.	Dec. 15.	
United States, ..	5½	1844	100 a 100½	96 a 97	90 a 95	96 a 97	97 a 99	
"	6	1844	97 a 99	95 a 97	98 a 100	99 a 100	
"	6	1862	100 a 100½	100 a 101	
N. Y. State, ...	7	1848	100½ a 100½	103½ a 104	
"	6	1860	100 a 100½	79 a 80	82 a 84	91 a 93	96½ a 99	
"	5½	1861	91 a 92	71 a 73	77 a 80	82½ a 84	88 a 90	
"	5	1855	86 a 87	68 a 72	75 a 77	80 a 82	85½ a 86	
Pennsylvania, ..	5	79 a 80	44 a 48	31 a 33	33 a 37	39½ a	
Ohio,	6	1856-60	94 a 95	67 a 68	50 a 55	74½ a 76	72 a 72½	
Kentucky,	6	1860	84 a 85	67 a 68	68 a 70	77½ a 78½	78½ a 78½	
Alabama,	5	1865	50 a 55	35 a 40	50 a 60	65 a 80	
Arkansas,	6	25 y'rs.	59 a 63	35 a 45	a 30	20 a 45	27½ a 32	
Indiana,	5	1861	55 a 55½	19 a 20	15 a 17	21 a 23½	20½ a 21½	
Illinois,	6	1870	55 a 55½	18 a 19	15 a 16	17½ a 18	18½ a	
Maryland,	6	40 a 45	
Michigan,	6	1860	65 a 70	15 a 30	

This shows a marked improvement; but the rise in prices, by giving an opportunity to realize, increases the number of sellers, and therefore reacts upon the price. This will be met, after the 1st of January, by an increased supply of money seeking for investment, being the dividends of states, banks, and corporations, then payable. Some causes of discredit have attached to several of the states. Ohio has issued, in compliance with a former law, \$200,000 of stock at 6 per cent, to discharge a claim upon her for borrowed money from the Franklin Bank and the Bank of Chillicothe. The interest upon the debt of that state, due January 1st, has been paid; and it is hoped that, hereafter, there will be less difficulty in meeting its payments. The property of the State of Pennsylvania has been offered at auction but not sold, because of its worthless character. There are now six delinquent states, owing debts as follows:—

	Debt.	Interest.		Debt.	Interest.
Pennsylvania,....	\$38,000,000	\$1,800,000	Michigan,.....	\$5,000,000	\$300,000
Arkansas,.....	3,500,000	210,000	Mississippi,.....	5,500,000	330,000
Indiana,.....	15,000,000	750,000			
Illinois,.....	19,000,000	1,140,000	Total delin,...	\$86,000,000	\$4,530,000

This, with the customary dividends of banks and companies that have failed, make a sum of near \$10,000,000 taken out of the pockets of stockholders, but saved to the producing classes through the discredit of the means by which it was extracted from them. The great feature of the age, both here and in England, seems to be a distrust of the means through which capital has heretofore been employed, more particularly banks. In England money is exceedingly abundant, say 2 and 3 per cent, at our latest dates; and yet the joint stock banks gave evident symptoms of falling into the same ruin which has overtaken analogous institutions on this side of the Atlantic. In the United States a vast change is now going on in the manner of doing business, consequent upon the discredit attached to banks or irresponsible associations of men, for taking in and loaning money. This is more immediately discernible in the fact that the deposits with known private houses of good standing are on the increase, as well as the applications to them for money. The advantages of this over the former method of making large deposits in banks, depending upon them altogether for loans, are many and obvious. Banks, in former years, were approached by an applicant "cap in hand," with a degree of respect and awe that he would have been ashamed to have evinced for an individual. After an anxious application to a board of directors he frequently received a surly denial, and was obliged to make the best of it; when, had the secret history been known, it would have appeared that his paper was refused because certain directors, A, B, or C, absorbed the funds of the bank for their own uses, on paper less sound than that rejected. The operations of private houses are conducted at far less expense, their funds are always at the command of the best customer, and their terms are restricted by an increasing activity of competition. An advantage which they enjoy above the banks is, that they are personally known to all their customers. They know their wants, their business, and their standing. They know precisely the nature of the transaction for which the money is required, and govern themselves accordingly. Their ability to do business on better terms and cheaper rates is seen in the simple fact, that for months exchange between this city and Philadelphia has been so regulated in their hands as to vary scarcely one-sixteenth per cent, while, under the rule of the United States Bank, it was uniformly one-fourth. We mention these facts because they are growing features in the markets.

It is an undoubted fact, that the whole country is far more rich in real wealth now than ever before, and also that that wealth is becoming active. As that activity increases, the business and profits of private houses improve, while those of banks do not feel the same influence. The whole resolves itself into this: that mercantile banking is concentrating in the hands of private houses of known integrity, wealth, and business habits, because of the superior facility they afford over associations of irresponsible men,

doing business in palaces at enormous expense. The next few months will produce a great change in the face of affairs. Business has got into a healthy current, and gathers force as it rolls onward; and will soon give evidence of the immense real wealth on which it moves. The sound banks of New Orleans have resumed their payments in specie, and the remainder have gone into liquidation, leaving nine banks out of sixteen formerly in operation. In our last, we gave a table of the banks of Ohio which go into liquidation on the 1st of January. There now remains but the Alabama banks in a state of suspension, and it is supposed that the present legislature will compel a speedy resumption. The flow of specie from this city to the south has ceased for the present, by reason of the rise of bills removing the inducement to import coin.

The present prohibitive tariff was adopted chiefly with the view of giving protection to American manufactures, either by excluding altogether those of foreign production, or of enhancing the prices here to the consumer for the benefit of the home manufacturer. The example and policy of England in her protective system has been the plea not only for the United States, but for all other countries, to imitate the measures of the English government. In order to understand how far a low tariff here has operated to induce imports, we have compiled from English official tables the following, showing the declared value of the whole exports of British manufacture, and the proportion sent to the United States during a period of a descending scale of duties under the compromise act:—

EXPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN, SHOWING THE PROPORTION SENT IN EACH YEAR TO THE UNITED STATES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

	1833.	1834.	1836.	1837.	1839.	1840.
Apparel,.....	£789,148	£782,258	£1,292,379	£950,951	£1,332,427	£1,208,687
“ to U. S.	127,911	106,282	254,269	75,265	180,019	109,341
Beer,.....	206,935	186,321	270,915	273,122	384,324	422,222
“ to U. S.	11,022	10,117	18,691	10,540	20,528	11,070
Brass manufac.,	884,149	961,823	1,072,344	1,166,277	1,280,506	1,450,464
“ to U. S.	158,456	87,840	270,028	115,782	129,226	107,473
Coal, &c.,.....	231,344	220,746	332,861	431,545	542,609	576,519
“ to U. S.	14,455	20,298	17,080	29,252	27,949	40,013
Cotton manuf.,	12,451,060	14,127,352	17,183,167	12,727,989	16,378,445	16,302,220
“ to U. S.	1,385,957	1,394,057	2,115,061	594,822	1,144,749	898,469
Cotton twist,....	4,704,024	5,211,015	6,120,366	6,955,942	6,858,193	7,101,308
“ to U. S.	6,255	6,693	14,753	13,359	7,760	13,361
Earthenware,....	496,963	493,382	837,774	563,238	771,173	573,184
“ to U. S.	221,661	198,901	495,512	212,632	400,164	179,933
Glass,.....	436,604	481,696	536,601	467,307	357,315	404,474
“ to U. S.	83,080	95,536	96,115	63,614	51,989	23,192
Hardware,.....	1,466,362	1,485,233	2,271,313	1,460,807	1,828,521	1,349,137
“ to U. S.	711,305	647,216	1,318,412	574,876	849,640	334,065
Iron & Steel,....	1,405,035	1,406,872	2,342,674	2,009,259	2,719,824	2,524,859
“ to U. S.	412,515	322,156	912,387	489,309	801,198	355,534
Leather,.....	279,524	248,302	322,546	255,818	382,995	320,912
“ to U. S.	22,864	17,994	25,554	10,794	38,851	13,875
Linen,.....	2,167,024	2,443,346	3,326,325	2,127,445	3,414,967	3,306,088
“ to U. S.	830,820	1,047,744	1,687,877	584,597	1,264,008	975,586
Machinery,.....	127,064	211,982	302,092	493,468	683,285	593,064
“ to U. S.	8,828	28,699	24,081	13,862	7,185	13,150
Plated ware,....	179,283	192,269	338,889	258,076	274,305	204,427
“ to U. S.	71,986	67,797	162,872	74,686	88,964	34,021
Silk goods,.....	737,404	637,198	917,822	503,673	868,118	792,648
“ to U. S.	251,278	200,306	524,301	109,629	410,093	274,159
Salt,.....	184,176	152,127	173,923	193,621	218,907	213,479
“ to U. S.	65,561	52,387	58,321	77,161	67,512	89,828
Tin ware,.....	282,176	337,056	387,951	371,848	372,026	360,816
“ to U. S.	136,959	167,169	245,954	138,984	197,834	168,988
Woollen yarn, .	246,204	238,544	358,690	333,098	423,320	452,957
“ to U. S.	24,476	28,096	25,553	17,659	36,293	8,107
Woollen goods,	6,294,522	5,736,871	7,639,354	4,665,977	7,271,645	5,327,853
“ to U. S.	2,265,407	1,726,934	3,173,645	1,945,279	2,142,352	1,069,721
Tot. exp. to all } Countries, {	39,667,347	41,649,191	53,293,979	42,070,744	53,233,580	51,406,430
Tot. to U. States,	£7,579,699	£6,844,989	12,425,605	£4,695,225	£8,839,204	£5,283,020

This table presents the fact that the United States, notwithstanding an increase of nearly 40 per cent in its wealth and population during the period embraced in this table, have greatly fallen off in their importance as a market for British manufactures. In 1831, 25 per cent of all the exports of Great Britain was sent to the United States. This proportion did not vary materially during the five subsequent years of paper prosperity in both countries. The whole exports of British produce increased in those years 33 per cent, and those to the United States preserved the same proportion to the aggregate amount as at the commencement of that period. When, in 1837, the revulsion overtook banking, which was the instrument by which large sales of goods were made on credit at high paper prices, the whole exports of Great Britain fell off £11,000,000, of which near £8,000,000 was in the United States trade; showing that the other markets for British produce were not affected by the revulsion which overtook the paper systems of the United States and England. In 1840, the exports to the United States were one-tenth only of the whole exports instead of one-fourth. It must be borne in mind that, during this whole period, the tariff had been constantly decreasing; until in 1840, when the tariff had nearly reached its lowest grade, the importations were the least. The year 1839 was one of extended banking movement and increased imports in the United States, ending in revulsion and bankruptcy. In that year the imports from England increased £4,200,000, being nearly half the whole increase of exports in that year from Great Britain. In 1840, a corresponding diminution took place. The following table will show the articles in which these fluctuations mostly occurred:—

DECREASE IN THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT FROM GREAT BRITAIN IN THE YEAR 1837, AND THE PROPORTION OF THAT DECREASE IN THE UNITED STATES TRADE.

Articles.	Decrease of Exports.	Increase of Exports.	Decrease to U. States.	Decrease to other Countries.	Increase to other Countries.
Cotton goods,...	£880,947	£1,216,592	£335,645
Earthenware,...	264,590	315,589	50,999
Glass,.....	132,127	72,923	£59,204
Hardware,.....	922,176	984,347	62,171
Iron,.....	£182,185	556,853	739,038
Linen,.....	20,237	712,291	692,054
Plated ware,...	134,462	128,851	5,611
Silk goods,.....	125,174	240,142	14,695
Tin ware,.....	27,135	76,966	49,831
Woollen goods,	2,311,501	2,103,924	207,577
Total, 10 art.,	£4,636,164	£182,185	£5,408,476	£272,392	£1,944,703

The articles which present the greatest reduction are cotton and woollen goods, being precisely those on which the greatest decrease of duties took place in the United States. We may now take the average exports of cottons and woollens from Great Britain to the United States for the three years during the highest tariff in the United States, and the three last years embraced in the above table, also the quantities and average cost per yard, with the average duty on cottons and woollens, as follows:—

AVERAGE IMPORTS 1831-2-3.

	Quantity.	Value.	Cost, per yd.	Duty, per ct.
Cotton, yards,.....	48,412,875	\$8,090,260	17 cts.	94
Woollens, pieces,.....	702,853	8,403,005	\$12,00 per p.	50
" yards,.....	2,412,775	1,123,920	46 cts.	35

AVERAGE IMPORTS 1838-9-40.

	Quantity.	Value.	Cost, per yd.	Duty, per ct.
Cotton, yards,.....	35,934,056	\$7,082,635	19 cts.	54
Woollens, pieces,.....	522,024	7,077,115	\$13,50 per p.	38
" yards,.....	2,797,527	955,585	34 cts.	29

This presents a great reduction in quantities and values imported, with an average reduction in import duties of 19 per cent. These facts clearly point to some agency more powerful than the tariff in regulating the amount of imports. They demonstrate that the previous expansion of prices consequent upon the former tariff, acting upon a fluctuating currency, had induced imports to a far greater extent than could be paid for with the legitimate proceeds of industry; and, with the decrease of the means of consuming on credit, those imports fell off far below their former level, because the excess consumed in one year on credit must be deducted from the actual means of payment when that credit no longer exists.

Those means of credit, as we have remarked on former occasions, will not, at least for some years, again influence trade in an important degree. The wealth of the country depends upon its actual productions and its commerce; on the amount of the surplus which exists for sale abroad, as well as upon the facilities which exist for exchanging that surplus with the products of foreign nations. It is an indisputable fact, that the surplus products of this country are now larger than ever before, and it is matter of first necessity that it should be disposed of to the best advantage; that is, that it should be exchanged for as much of the proceeds of foreign labor as can be procured for it. The lower that the money value of foreign labor is, the more of its proceeds will the American farmer get for his produce. In a steady and low currency, the imports of the surplus of foreign countries will be nearly equivalent to the export of the surplus of this. If, during the operation of this currency, a tariff is interposed prohibitive in its nature, the interchange is stopped, and export as well as import is checked. In a paper and expansive currency, the imports of the surplus of foreign countries will exceed the exports of the surplus of this to the extent to which credits are granted to consumers. If a tariff is imposed, the artificial and progressive rise in prices attendant on the continued increase in the volume of the currency, nullifies its operation as far as to check imports. It swells immensely the government revenue, and increases the debt of the consumers. We have seen that under the lowest range of the tariff the imports were the least, and were the highest under the highest duties, because a vacillating currency alternately raised and depressed prices. The future holds out no prospect of a return to a paper system, consequently the full force of the present tariff, unless repealed, will be felt by the commercial and agricultural interests; whereas, were the duties reduced to a proper revenue grade, it is fair to infer that the commerce of the country would increase immensely and rapidly, on a basis infinitely to the advantage of the manufacturers of this country, as well as of the commercial and agricultural interests. The idea that a National bank, fiscal agent, or exchequer scheme, is necessary to bring about a restoration of business, is fast fading from the public mind. The exchequer scheme proposed by the President professes, as the message states, only "to pay the debts of the government in government paper;" that is to say, it is a borrowing plan only. It proposes simply to retain in the Treasury \$5,000,000 in specie out of the receipts, and to pay out instead to the government creditors \$15,000,000 of paper money to be used as a currency, redeemable at the place of issue. This is the "chief purpose" of the plan. It is not easy to conceive how the mere addition of \$10,000,000 to the circulating medium of a country producing annually \$1,000,000,000 of wealth, can essentially benefit its trade. These notes could by no means answer so good a purpose for exchange as the existing Treasury notes. These notes are endorsed and remitted in all directions, and are promptly available as a remittance at all commercial points, besides enjoying the advantage of drawing an interest of 6 per cent, making them desirable as a means of investment; which preserves their market value at those periods of the year, say midsummer and midwinter, when exchange transactions are exceedingly limited. Hence, even if they answered quite as good a purpose as a medium of currency, "to come in assistance of

the exchanges," the mere substitution of one description of paper for another would not alter the state of affairs generally.

The finances of the general government, according to the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, require some more extensive measures of relief than a mere issue of \$10,000,000 of paper on credit of the government. It appears that the expenditures of the government for the year 1842 are \$34,503,160, of which about 9,000,000 have been paid on account of the government debt, leaving about \$23,000,000 for the ordinary expenses of the Treasury. Against this expenditure the regular revenue, exclusive of money borrowed, has been, from customs \$18,260,830, and from lands \$1,457,638, making \$19,718,468; showing a deficiency of revenue equal to \$3,784,692. Since the 30th of June, 1842, the customs have been collected in cash on all imports; hence, for the last six months of the year, the whole duties derived from the imports have been received into the Treasury, besides \$3,400,000 of bonds given for the imports of last year. This, deducted from the whole receipts, gives \$14,860,830 as the actual customs of the present year. Of this amount, \$7,900,000 was received during the first six months. The estimate of the Secretary for the customs of the year 1842 was \$15,600,000, being \$800,000 in excess of the actual receipts. In consequence of this state of the revenue the Department has been obliged, it appears, to increase its loans, which has been done to the extent of the deficiency. It thus appears that the high duties levied have produced the effect of decreasing the revenues, they being less than the estimate of the Secretary, under the supposition that the low rates of the compromise act would be continued throughout the year. This is a strong proof that the duties are prohibitive in their nature, and therefore alike ruinous to commerce and to revenue. In the present position of the government credit, both at home and abroad, where it has become a matter of ridicule, it is of first necessity that prompt and active measures should be adopted to place the revenues of the government on such a footing as to ensure the prompt fulfilment of its obligations. This is a consideration paramount to all others. It is in vain for the several states to look to the federal government either for protection or support, when that government is itself so restricted in its means as to be nearly without credit.

The late news from England is of an important character, inasmuch as it confirms the cessation of hostilities in the east, on such terms as to open to British commerce and enterprise the broad fields of trade presented in the populous and wealthy empire of China. By the treaty, five ports are opened to English merchants, whose interests will be protected by a consular resident at each port. This is an immense advantage, and promises to give to English enterprise a direction which will produce the greatest results. In a table embraced in an article on British commerce in another part of this number, it is shown that the English exports to China had, under the old system, grown up to \$6,000,000 in 1838, but was nearly destroyed by the breaking out of the war. Under the new and liberal footing on which that trade is based, scarcely any limits can be placed to the advantages which may be reaped from it. The prospect of this had produced great animation in England, and given great activity to those goods calculated for the China market, as well as a corresponding panic and fall in those of Chinese production, which had been held high in expectation of a continuance of the war.

BANK STATISTICS.

BANK CIRCULATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

THE following is a statement of the circulation of the Banks of England, Scotland, and Ireland, in different years:—

Year.	Bank of England.	Private and Joint Stock bks., England.	Banks in Scotland and Ireland.	Total.
1836.....	£18,376,000	£11,658,494	£8,337,889	£38,372,383
1837.....	19,253,000	9,935,701	7,396,174	36,584,825
1838.....	19,782,000	11,174,749	7,172,391	38,129,140
1839.....	18,014,000	10,868,785	8,214,645	37,097,930
1840.....	17,561,000	9,797,017	7,840,571	35,198,588
1841.....	17,928,000	9,059,553	7,893,629	34,881,182
1842.....	20,351,000	7,973,718	7,139,202	35,463,920

From this table it appears, that while the decrease in the total circulation of the United Kingdom, from 1836 to 1842, has been £2,908,463, the decrease in the country circulation has been £4,883,463, and the increase in the notes of the Bank of England, £1,975,000. The quantity of bullion in the Bank of England is greater than at any former period since the middle of 1838, amounting to near £10,000,000.

CONTINENTAL MONEY.

"The first emission," says the Newburyport Herald, "of the old continental paper currency, was made May 10, 1775;" and according to an estimate of the Treasury Department, in 1790, the issues of the principal amount of this currency were made as follows:—

Year.	Old Emission.	New Emission
1776.....	\$20,064,464
1777.....	56,426,333
1778.....	66,965,269
1779.....	149,703,856
1780.....	82,908,320	\$891,836
1781.....	11,408,095	1,179,249
Total.....	\$387,476,337	\$2,071,085

The issue of this currency was, in effect, a forced loan. The colonial congress issued it for the purpose of enabling the colonies to carry on the revolutionary war. "Till the issues of these bills exceeded nine millions," says Mr. Jefferson, "they passed at their nominal value; but the depreciation after that was very great." The progress of depreciation may be seen by the following table:—

January, 1777.....	14 discount.
" 1778.....	4 "
" 1779.....	7, 8, 9 "
" 1780.....	40 to 45 "
" 1781.....	100 to 120 "
May, 1781.....	200 to 500 "

After May, 1781, the continental bills ceased pretty much to circulate as money, but were bought afterwards on speculation at various prices, from \$300 for \$1, up to \$1,000 for \$1. On the 11th of January, 1776, five months after the first issue, congress resolved that "whoever should refuse to receive in payment continental bills, should be declared and treated as an enemy to his country, and be precluded from intercourse with its inhabitants," that is, outlawed; which is the severest penalty (except of life and limb) known to our laws. "This principle," says a writer, "was continued in practice for five successive years, and appeared in all shapes and forms; i. e., in tender-acts; in limitation of prices; in awful and threatening declarations; in penal laws, with dreadful and ruinous punishments; and in every other way that could be devised; and all executed with a relentless severity by the highest authorities then in being, viz: by congress, by assemblies and conventions of the states, by committees of inspection, (whose powers in those days were nearly sovereign,) and even by military force."

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE LAST TWENTY-ONE YEARS.

We have compiled with great care and labor, from official documents, the following tables, showing the commercial movement in the import and export trade of each state and territory of the United States for the last twenty-one years, commencing on the 1st of October, 1820, and ending on the 30th of September, 1841. It is the first table of the kind, we believe, for so long a period, that has ever been published. We intend hereafter to prepare, for each succeeding number of the Merchants' Magazine, tables illustrative of the progress of American commerce, thus presenting a connected statistical view of the commerce and navigation of the Union for a series of years; so that the Magazine will be not only the repository of the statistics of the present, but a chronicle of the past. The convenience of these tables, as matter for reference, will be apparent to all who can appreciate the importance of statistical science.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE LAST TWENTY-ONE YEARS.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	From Oct. 1, 1820, to Sept. 30, 1821.		From Oct. 1, 1821, to Sept. 30, 1822.		From Oct. 1, 1822, to Sept. 30, 1823.	
	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.
Maine.....	\$980,294	\$1,041,448	\$943,775	\$1,036,642	\$891,644	\$895,501
New Hamp.,	350,021	260,765	330,052	199,599	371,770	237,705
Massachus.,	4,826,732	12,484,771	18,337,320	12,598,525	17,607,160	13,683,239
Vermont,....	15,987	263,330	60,897	257,694	62,242	236,140
Rhode Isl'd.,	1,032,968	996,928	1,884,144	862,363	1,412,953	933,114
Connecticut,	312,090	376,187	507,094	485,312	29,421,349	482,061
New York, ..	23,629,246	13,162,547	35,445,628	17,100,482	5,933	19,038,990
New Jersey, ..	17,606	33,711	103,190	83,581	13,696,770	26,064
Pennsylvania	8,158,922	7,391,767	11,874,170	9,047,802	60,124	9,617,192
Delaware,....	80,997	85,445	216,969	168,592	4,946,179	53,817
Maryland,....	4,070,842	3,850,394	4,792,486	4,536,796	275,083	6,030,228
D. of Colum.,	398,984	898,092	470,613	1,043,430	681,810	801,295
Virginia,....	1,078,490	3,079,210	864,162	3,217,389	183,958	4,006,788
N. Carolina, ..	200,673	400,944	258,761	585,951	2,419,101	482,417
S. Carolina, ..	3,007,113	7,200,511	22,883,586	7,260,320	670,705	6,898,814
Georgia,	1,002,684	6,014,310	989,591	5,484,869	4,283,125	4,293,666
Louisiana,	3,379,717	7,272,172	3,817,238	7,978,645	125,770	7,779,072
Alabama,	108,960	36,421	209,748	161	202,387
Ohio,	12	190	105	2,159
Michigan,	29,076	53,290	18,377	694	4,808	1,010
Florida,	13,270	6,877	1,777	1,510
Total, . DOLS.	62,585,724	64,974,382	83,241,541	72,160,281	77,579,267	74,699,030

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES, ETC.—Continued.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	From Oct. 1, 1823, to Sept. 30, 1824.		From Oct. 1, 1824, to Sept. 30, 1825.		From Oct. 1, 1825, to Sept. 30, 1826.	
	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.
Maine,.....	\$768,643	\$900,195	\$1,169,940	\$1,031,127	\$1,245,235	\$1,052,575
New Hamp.,	245,513	185,383	331,244	198,680	348,609	167,075
Massachus.,	15,378,758	10,434,328	15,845,141	11,432,987	17,063,482	10,098,862
Vermont,....	161,854	208,258	109,021	396,166	228,650	884,202
Rhode Isl'd.,	1,388,336	872,899	907,906	678,467	1,185,934	781,540
Connecticut,	581,510	575,852	707,478	689,270	736,194	708,893
New York,.,	36,113,723	22,897,134	49,639,174	35,259,261	38,115,630	21,947,791
New Jersey,.,	637,518	28,989	27,688	47,213	48,004	37,965
Pennsylvania	11,865,531	9,364,893	15,041,797	11,269,981	13,551,779	8,331,722
Delaware,....	12,080	18,964	18,693	31,656	10,009	35,195
Maryland,...	4,551,642	4,863,233	4,751,815	4,501,304	4,928,569	4,010,748
D. of Colum.,	379,958	722,405	277,297	758,367	269,630	624,231
Virginia,....	639,787	3,277,564	553,562	4,129,520	635,438	4,596,732
N. Carolina,.,	465,836	588,733	311,308	553,390	367,545	581,740
S. Carolina,.,	2,166,185	8,034,082	1,892,297	11,056,742	1,534,483	7,554,036
Georgia,.....	551,888	4,623,982	343,356	4,222,833	330,993	4,368,504
Louisiana,...	4,539,769	7,928,820	4,290,034	12,582,924	4,167,521	10,284,380
Alabama,....	91,604	460,727	113,411	692,635	179,554	1,527,111
Ohio,.....	1,810
Michigan,....	1,886	5,695	10,628
Florida,.....	6,986	216	3,218	2,865	16,590	209
Total,... DOLS.	80,549,007	75,986,657	96,340,075	99,535,388	84,974,477	77,595,322

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES, ETC.—Continued.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	From Oct. 1, 1826, to Sept. 30, 1827.		From Oct. 1, 1827, to Sept. 30, 1828.		From Oct. 1, 1828, to Sept. 30, 1829.	
	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.
Maine,.....	\$1,333,390	\$1,070,134	\$1,246,809	\$1,019,517	\$742,781	\$737,832
New Hamp.,	302,211	177,398	299,849	124,433	179,889	105,740
Vermont,....	144,078	1,259,441	177,539	239,610	205,392	808,079
Massachus.,	13,370,564	10,424,383	15,070,444	9,025,785	12,520,744	8,254,937
Rhode Isl'd.,	1,241,828	804,187	1,128,226	722,166	423,811	390,381
Connecticut,.,	630,004	590,275	485,174	521,545	309,538	457,970
New York,.,	38,719,644	23,834,137	41,927,792	22,777,649	34,743,307	20,119,011
New Jersey,.,	338,497	25,627	706,872	1,892	786,247	8,022
Pennsylvania	11,212,935	7,575,833	12,884,408	6,051,480	10,100,152	4,089,935
Delaware,....	6,993	9,406	15,260	29,395	24,179	7,195
Maryland,....	4,405,708	4,516,406	5,629,694	4,334,422	4,804,135	4,804,465
D. of Colum.,	327,623	1,182,142	181,665	707,443	205,921	928,097
Virginia,....	431,765	4,657,938	375,238	3,340,185	395,352	3,787,431
N. Carolina,.,	276,791	449,237	268,615	523,747	283,347	564,506
S. Carolina,.,	1,434,106	8,322,561	1,242,048	6,550,712	1,139,618	8,175,586
Georgia,.....	312,609	4,261,555	308,669	3,104,425	380,293	4,981,376
Ohio,.....	293	2,004
Louisiana,....	4,531,645	11,728,997	6,217,881	11,947,400	6,857,209	12,386,060
Alabama,....	201,909	1,376,364	171,909	1,182,559	233,720	1,693,958
Michigan,....	3,774	1,320	3,440	2,957
Florida,.....	257,994	57,486	168,292	60,321	153,642	56,086
Total,... DOLS.	79,494,068	82,324,827	88,509,824	72,264,686	74,492,527	72,358,671

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES, ETC.—Continued.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	From Oct. 1, 1829, to Sept. 30, 1830.		From Oct. 1, 1830, to Sept. 30, 1831.		From Oct. 1, 1831, to Sept. 30, 1832.	
	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.
Maine,.....	\$572,666	\$670,522	\$941,407	\$805,573	\$1,123,362	\$981,443
New Hamp.,...	130,828	96,184	146,205	111,222	115,171	115,582
Vermont,....	140,059	658,256	166,206	925,127	214,672	349,820
Massachus.,...	10,453,544	7,213,194	14,269,056	7,733,763	18,118,900	11,993,768
Rhode Isl'd.,...	488,756	278,950	562,161	367,465	657,969	534,459
Connecticut,...	269,583	389,511	405,066	482,883	437,715	430,466
New York,...	35,624,070	19,697,983	57,077,417	25,535,144	53,214,404	26,000,945
New Jersey,...	13,444	8,324	11,430	70,460	61,794
Pennsylvania	8,702,122	4,291,793	12,124,083	5,513,713	10,678,358	3,516,066
Delaware,....	26,574	52,358	21,656	34,514	23,653	16,242
Maryland,....	4,523,866	3,791,482	4,826,577	4,308,647	4,629,303	4,499,918
D. of Colum.,...	168,550	753,973	193,555	1,220,975	188,047	1,154,474
Virginia,.....	405,739	4,791,644	488,622	4,150,475	553,639	4,510,650
N. Carolina,...	221,992	399,333	196,356	341,140	215,184	342,041
S. Carolina,...	1,054,619	7,627,031	1,238,163	6,575,202	1,213,725	7,752,731
Georgia,.....	282,436	5,336,626	399,940	3,959,813	253,417	5,515,883
Alabama,....	144,823	2,294,594	224,435	2,413,894	306,845	2,736,387
Louisiana,....	7,599,083	15,488,692	9,766,693	16,761,989	8,871,653	16,530,930
Ohio,.....	162	617	14,727	12,392	58,394
Michigan,....	21,315	1,588	27,299	12,392	22,648	9,234
Florida,.....	32,689	7,570	115,710	30,495	107,789	65,716
Total,..DOLS.	70,876,920	73,849,508	103,191,124	81,310,583	101,029,266	87,176,943

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES, ETC.—Continued.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	From Oct. 1, 1832, to Sept. 30, 1833.		From Oct. 1, 1833, to Sept. 30, 1834.		From Oct. 1, 1834, to Sept. 30, 1835.	
	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.
Maine,.....	\$1,380,308	\$1,019,831	\$1,060,121	\$834,167	\$883,389	\$1,059,367
New Hamp.,...	167,754	155,258	118,695	80,870	71,514	81,681
Vermont,....	523,260	377,399	322,806	334,372	217,853	328,151
Massachus.,...	19,940,911	9,683,122	17,672,129	10,148,820	19,800,373	10,043,790
Rhode Isl'd.,...	1,042,286	485,481	427,024	501,626	597,713	296,003
Connecticut,...	352,014	427,603	385,720	422,416	439,502	512,970
New York,...	55,918,449	25,395,117	73,188,594	25,512,014	88,191,305	30,345,264
New Jersey,...	170	32,753	4,492	8,131	18,932	74,041
Pennsylvania	10,451,250	4,078,951	10,479,268	3,789,746	12,389,937	3,739,275
Delaware,....	9,043	45,911	185,943	51,945	10,611	88,826
Maryland,....	5,437,057	4,062,467	4,647,483	4,168,245	5,647,153	3,925,234
D. of Colum.,...	150,046	1,002,816	196,254	820,394	111,195	517,639
Virginia,....	690,391	4,467,587	837,325	5,483,098	691,255	6,064,063
N. Carolina,...	198,758	433,035	222,472	471,406	241,981	319,327
S. Carolina,...	1,517,705	8,434,325	1,787,267	11,207,778	1,891,805	11,338,016
Georgia,.....	318,990	6,270,040	546,802	7,567,327	393,049	8,890,674
Alabama,....	265,918	4,527,961	395,361	5,670,777	525,955	7,574,692
Louisiana,....	9,590,505	18,941,373	13,781,809	26,557,524	17,519,814	36,270,823
Tennessee,...	13,796
Ohio,.....	8,353	225,544	19,767	241,451	9,808	97,202
Florida,.....	85,386	64,805	135,798	228,825	98,173	61,710
Michigan,....	63,876	9,054	106,202	36,021	130,629	64,830
Total,..DOLS.	108,118,311	90,140,433	126,521,332	104,336,973	149,895,742	121,693,577

Missouri imported, in 1833, to the amount of \$5,881, which is included in the total of imports.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES, ETC.—Continued.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	From Oct. 1, 1835, to Sept. 30, 1836.		From Oct. 1, 1836, to Sept. 30, 1837.		From Oct. 1, 1837, to Sept. 30, 1838.	
	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.
Maine,.....	\$930,086	\$850,986	\$801,404	\$955,952	\$899,142	\$935,532
New Hamp.,	64,354	15,520	81,834	34,641	169,985	74,670
Vermont,....	456,846	188,165	342,449	138,693	258,417	132,650
Massachus.,	25,681,462	10,380,346	19,984,668	9,728,190	13,300,925	9,104,862
Rhode Isl'd.,	555,199	228,420	523,610	488,258	651,613	291,257
Connecticut,	468,163	438,199	318,849	532,590	343,331	543,610
New York,...	118,253,416	28,920,638	79,301,722	27,338,419	68,453,206	23,008,471
New Jersey,...	24,263	62,809	69,152	44,217	1,700	28,010
Pennsylvania	15,068,233	3,971,555	11,680,111	3,841,599	9,360,731	3,477,151
Delaware,....	107,063	74,981	66,841	40,333	1,348	36,844
Maryland,....	7,131,867	3,675,475	7,857,033	3,789,917	5,701,869	4,524,575
D. of Colum.,	111,419	326,874	102,225	469,209	122,748	373,113
Virginia,....	1,106,814	6,192,040	813,862	3,702,714	577,142	3,986,228
N. Carolina,...	197,116	429,851	271,623	551,795	290,405	545,233
S. Carolina,...	2,806,361	13,684,376	2,510,860	11,220,161	2,318,791	11,042,070
Georgia,.....	573,222	10,722,200	774,349	8,935,041	776,068	8,803,839
Alabama,....	651,618	11,184,166	609,385	9,658,808	524,548	9,688,244
Mississippi,...	5,650	304,831
Tennessee,...	36,015	27,401	527
Louisiana,...	15,117,649	37,179,828	14,020,012	35,338,697	9,496,808	31,502,248
Ohio,.....	10,960	3,718	17,747	132,844	12,895	139,827
Kentucky,...	17,782	8,932
Florida,.....	121,745	71,662	305,514	102,677	168,690	122,532
Michigan,....	502,287	61,231	490,784	69,790	256,662	125,660
Missouri,....	3,227	15,921
Total, .. DOLS.	189,980,035	128,663,040	140,989,217	117,419,376	113,717,404	108,486,616

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES, ETC.—Continued.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	From Oct. 1, 1838, to Sept. 30, 1839.		From Oct. 1, 1839, to Sept. 30, 1840.		From Oct. 1, 1840, to Sept. 30, 1841.	
	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.	VAL. OF IMP.	VAL. OF EXP.
Maine,.....	\$982,724	\$895,485	\$628,762	\$1,018,269	\$700,961	\$1,091,565
New Hamp.,	51,407	81,944	114,647	20,979	73,701	10,348
Vermont,....	413,513	193,886	404,617	305,150	246,739	277,987
Massachus.,	19,385,223	9,276,085	16,513,858	10,186,261	20,318,003	11,487,343
Rhode Isl'd.,	612,057	185,234	274,534	206,989	339,592	278,465
Connecticut,	446,191	583,226	277,072	518,210	295,989	599,348
New York,...	99,882,438	33,268,099	60,440,750	34,264,080	75,713,426	33,139,838
New Jersey,...	4,182	98,079	19,209	16,076	2,315	19,166
Pennsylvania	15,050,715	5,299,415	8,464,882	6,820,145	10,346,698	5,152,501
Delaware,....	8,680	802	37,001	3,276	38,585
Maryland,....	6,995,285	4,576,561	4,910,746	5,768,768	6,101,313	4,947,166
D. of Colum.,	132,511	503,717	119,852	753,923	77,263	769,331
Virginia,....	913,462	5,187,196	545,085	4,778,220	377,239	5,630,286
N. Carolina,...	229,233	427,926	252,532	387,484	220,366	383,056
S. Carolina,...	3,086,077	10,385,426	2,058,870	10,036,769	1,557,431	8,043,284
Georgia,.....	413,987	5,970,443	491,428	6,862,959	449,007	3,696,513
Alabama,....	895,201	10,338,159	574,651	12,854,694	530,819	10,958,271
Mississippi,...
Louisiana,...	12,064,942	33,181,167	10,673,190	34,236,936	10,256,350	34,387,483
Ohio,.....	19,280	95,854	4,915	991,954	11,318	793,114
Kentucky,...	10,480	3,723	2,241
Tennessee,...	146	28,938	7,523
Michigan,....	176,221	133,305	138,610	162,299	137,800	88,529
Florida,.....	279,283	334,806	190,728	1,858,850	33,875
Missouri,....	46,964	10,600	145,181	36,629
Total, .. DOLS.	162,092,132	121,028,416	107,141,519	132,085,946	127,946,177	121,851,808

RECAPITULATION.

A Table, showing the total value of Imports and Exports, in dollars, of the United States in each Commercial year, commencing on the 1st day of October, and ending on the 30th of September, for a period of Twenty-one years; and exhibiting, also, the excess of Imports and Exports in each year for the same period.

Years.	Value of Imports.	Value of Exports.	Excess of Imports.	Excess of Exports.
1821.....	\$62,858,724	\$64,974,382	\$2,388,658
1822.....	83,241,541	72,160,281	\$11,081,260
1823.....	77,579,267	74,699,030	2,880,237
1824.....	80,549,007	75,986,657	4,562,350
1825.....	96,340,075	99,535,388	3,195,313
1826.....	84,974,477	77,595,322	7,379,155
1827.....	79,494,068	82,324,827	2,830,759
1828.....	88,509,824	72,264,686	16,245,138
1829.....	74,492,527	72,315,671	2,176,856
1830.....	70,876,920	73,849,508	2,972,588
1831.....	103,191,124	81,310,583	21,880,541
1832.....	101,029,266	87,176,943	13,852,323
1833.....	108,118,311	90,140,433	17,977,878
1834.....	126,521,332	104,336,973	22,184,359
1835.....	149,895,742	121,693,577	28,202,165
1836.....	189,980,035	128,663,040	61,316,995
1837.....	140,989,217	117,419,376	23,569,741
1838.....	113,717,404	108,486,616	5,230,788
1839.....	162,092,132	121,028,416	41,063,716
1840.....	107,141,519	132,085,946	24,944,427
1841.....	127,946,177	121,851,808	6,094,369

FOREIGN WHEAT AND FLOUR IMPORTED INTO ENGLAND.

The following table, showing the quantity of wheat and flour imported into England from abroad in different years, and also the annual average price, is derived from the Boston Emancipator:—

Years— From July 15.	Entered for Home Con- sumption.	Remaining in Warehouse.	Price. s. d.	Years— From July 15.	Entered for Home Con- sumption.	Remaining in Warehouse.	Price. s. d.
1828.....	760,479	32,217	60 5	1837.....	244,272	644,671	55 10
1829.....	1,442,701	247,752	66 3	Aver.,	626,646	559,238	55 10
1830.....	1,727,847	154,367	64 3	1838.....	1,848,475	25,729	64 7
1831.....	1,506,740	901,445	66 4	1839.....	2,711,723	175,682	70 8
1832.....	376,755	702,293	58 8	1840.....	2,401,436	139,408	66 4
1833.....	84,036	822,852	52 11	1841.....	2,647,808	64 4
1834.....	64,974	774,185	46 2	Aver.,	2,402,360	113,606	66 6
1835.....	28,554	681,158	39 4				
1836.....	30,107	631,443	48 6				

WESTERN LAKE TRADE.

The following interesting statement is from the Buffalo Commercial Advertiser. The first part of the statement shows the total quantities of the principal articles unladed at Buffalo during the single month of October last; the whole number of arrivals during that month being 304, and the departures 344:—

Flour.....	barrels	135,353	Wheat.....	bushels	384,082
Seed.....	"	3,480	Corn.....	"	29,652
Beef.....	"	1,102	Butter.....	kegs	7,991
Fish.....	"	641	Cheese.....	casks	2,487
Tallow.....	"	279	".....	boxes	2,621
Ashes.....	"	1,573	Lead.....	pigs	2,223
Whiskey.....	"	821	Wool.....	sacks	380

STATISTICS OF COINAGE.

THE tabular statements of the coinage of different countries, which follow, are derived from the valuable "Manual of Gold and Silver Coins of all Nations," prepared by Jacob R. Eckfeldt and William E. Dubois, Esqs., Assayers of the Mint of the United States; a work which should be in the possession of every banker, broker, and political economist in the country.

1. UNITED STATES.

Years.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
1793 to 1800.....	\$1,014,290	\$1,440,445	\$2,454,745
1801 to 1810.....	3,250,745	3,569,165	6,819,910
1811 to 1820.....	3,166,510	5,970,811	9,137,321
1821 to 1830.....	1,903,090	16,781,047	18,684,137
1831.....	714,270	3,175,600	3,889,870
1832.....	798,435	2,579,000	3,377,435
1833.....	978,550	2,759,000	3,737,550
1834.....	3,954,270	3,415,002	7,369,272
1835.....	2,186,175	3,443,003	5,629,178
1836.....	4,135,700	3,606,100	7,741,800
1837.....	1,148,305	2,096,010	3,244,315
1838.....	1,809,595	2,333,243	4,142,838
1839.....	1,355,885	2,189,296	3,545,181
1840.....	1,675,302	1,726,703	3,402,005
1841.....	1,091,598	1,132,750	2,224,348
Total.....	\$29,182,720	\$56,217,185	\$85,399,905

The mint at Philadelphia was the only one in operation until 1838. From that year to 1841, both inclusive, the amount of coinage at the mint and its branches was as follows:—

MINTS.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Mint at Philadelphia.....	\$4,581,175	\$5,848,489	\$10,429,664
Branch mint at New Orleans.....	326,190	1,533,503	1,859,693
Branch mint at Charlotte, N. C.....	507,025	507,025
Branch mint at Dahlonega, Geo.....	517,990	517,990
Total, 1838-41.....	\$5,932,380	\$7,381,992	\$13,314,372

The whole amount of coinage *in pieces*, from 1793 to 1841, at the mint and branches, has been as follows:—

GOLD.	Pieces.	Value.
Eagles,.....	291,009	\$2,910,090
Half eagles,.....	4,700,257	23,501,285
Quarter eagles,.....	1,108,538	2,771,345
SILVER.		
Dollars,.....	1,674,822	1,674,822
Half dollars,.....	97,895,662	48,947,831
Quarter dollars,.....	8,200,502	2,050,125 50
Dimes,.....	23,765,325	2,376,532 50
Half dimes,.....	23,357,478	1,167,873 90
Total,.....	160,993,593	\$85,399,904 90

The amount of copper coinage in the same period, was 89,439,030 cents, and 7,440,713 half cents, altogether of the value of \$931,503 86; which was all coined at Philadelphia.

No eagles were coined from 1805 to 1837 inclusive. No half eagles in 1816 and 1817. No quarter eagles before 1796, nor in 1800-1, nor from 1809 to 1823, except in

1821, nor in 1828 and 1841. No dollars from 1806 to 1838, except 1,000 in 1836. No half dollars from 1797 to 1800, nor in 1815. No quarter dollars before 1796, none from 1798 to 1803, none from 1808 to 1814, and none in 1817, 1824, 1826, 1829, and 1830. No dimes before 1796, none in 1799, 1806, 1808, 1812, 1813, 1815 to 1819, 1824, and 1826. No half dimes in 1798, 1799, 1804, and 1806 to 1828. No cents, except a few specimen pieces, in 1815 and 1823. No half cents in 1798, 1801, 1812 to 1824, 1827, 1830, and 1832, and none since 1836.

2. MEXICO.

Years.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Ten years, 1801-10.....	\$11,020,000	\$216,220,000	\$227,240,000
" 1811-20.....	6,030,000	106,130,000	112,160,000
" 1821-30.....	3,680,000	96,080,000	99,760,000
1831.....	No returns.	11,720,000
1832-33.....	No returns.	No returns.
1834.....	210,000	11,830,000	12,040,000
1835.....	350,000	11,650,000	12,000,000
1836.....	570,000	11,480,000	12,050,000
1837.....	380,000	11,230,000	11,610,000

For a long term of years, previous to the revolution, the annual coinage averaged nearly 23 millions of dollars. From the era just named, which had its commencement in 1810, the sum has been greatly reduced. Indeed, although the independence of the nation has long been fully established, yet the ever disturbed state of political affairs produces an effect upon the mints and mines, quite as depressive as was the war of the revolution. The annual coinage of late years is about 12 millions of dollars.

There are, at present, seven mints in operation. As there is a characteristic difference in the value of their coins, it will be interesting to know in what proportion they severally contribute to the annual sum of Mexican coinage. The returns of 1836 and 1837 are here given.

MINTS.	1836.			1837.		
	Gold.	Silver.	Total.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Mexico,.....	\$20,000	\$734,000	\$754,000	\$10,000	\$516,000	\$526,000
Zacatecas,.....	None.	5,460,000	5,460,000	None.	5,238,000	5,238,000
Guanajuato,....	171,000	2,341,000	2,512,000	151,000	2,857,000	3,008,000
Potosi,.....	None.	1,099,000	1,099,000	None.	1,111,000	1,111,000
Durango,.....	359,000	1,063,000	1,422,000	207,000	721,000	928,000
Guadalajara,...	23,000	561,000	584,000	13,000	567,000	580,000
Chihuahua,....	None.	224,000	224,000	None.	225,000	225,000

It appears, then, that they rank in the following order: 1. Zacatecas, 2. Guanajuato, 3. Durango, 4. Potosi, 5. Mexico, 6. Guadalajara, 7. Chihuahua.*

3. PERU.*

Years.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Ten years, 1801-10.....	\$3,216,400	\$42,500,000	\$45,716,400
" 1811-20.....	5,593,700	54,655,000	60,248,700
" 1821-30.....	1,294,700	15,435,700	16,730,400
Four years, 1831-34.....	401,700	11,400	413,100
1835-36.....	No returns.	No returns.
1837.....	120,000	2,564,000	2,684,000
1838.....	No returns.	No returns.
1839.....	None.	2,406,200	2,406,200
1840.....	None.	3,104,000	3,104,000
1841.....	None.	2,788,800	2,788,800

* Compiled from the "Tables of Revenue," &c., and a recent letter from Mr. Pickett, U. S. Chargé d'Affaires at Lima.

The foregoing returns for 1839 to 1841 do not include the coinage at the mints of Cuzco and Arequipa. At the former, the annual amount is supposed to be about one million of dollars—one-third of which is gold; at the latter, the amount in 1838 was near one million, but does not now reach \$100,000 annually.

The largest annual coinage in Peru, in the past century, was, of gold, in 1758, \$1,170,000; of silver, in 1794, \$5,304,000.

4. CHILI.*

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Gold.</i>	<i>Silver.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Ten years, 1811-20.....	\$6,171,800	\$3,527,000	\$9,698,800
" 1821-30.....	1,694,000	350,295	2,044,295
1831	None.	47,850	47,850
1832	192,440	37,950	230,390
1833	418,336	84,150	502,486
1834	522,240	44,550	566,790
1835	None.	3,300	3,300
1836	472,464	No returns.	472,464

The largest amount of gold coined, for many years, was in 1810—\$865,000; of silver, in 1817, \$535,000.

5. BOLIVIA.

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Gold.</i>	<i>Silver.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Ten years, 1801-10.....	\$5,096,000	\$30,772,500	\$35,868,500
" 1811-20.....	125,936	20,542,500	20,668,436
" 1821-30.....	703,120	15,006,750	15,709,870
1831	122,944	1,815	124,759
1832	148,512	1,815	150,327
1833	99,824	1,897	101,721
1834	80,240	1,898	82,138
1835	184,144	1,897	186,041
1836	88,000	1,947,000	2,035,000
1837	198,000	2,070,000	2,268,000

The largest gold coinage for many years past, was in 1805—\$785,000; of silver, in 1796, \$4,274,000.

6. GREAT BRITAIN.

The gold coinage, for some years previous to the monetary law of 1816, was nearly in a state of suspension; in the three years of 1809, 1810, and 1811, the amount was about £300,000, annually, and in 1813, £520,000. In the three years following, there was no gold coined. There was no silver coinage, except bank tokens, from 1788 to 1815. The following tables commence with the year 1816, and extend to 1840 inclusive:—

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Gold.</i>	<i>Silver.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Five years, 1816-20.....	£8,090,800	£6,932,800	£15,023,600
" 1821-25.....	24,283,300	1,450,000	25,733,300
" 1826-30.....	14,252,300	766,300	15,018,600
" 1831-35.....	6,737,500	613,400	7,350,900
1836	1,787,800	497,700	2,285,500
1837	1,253,100	75,250	1,328,350
1838	2,855,400	173,850	3,029,250
1839	504,300	390,450	894,750
1840	None.	207,700	207,700
Total.....	£59,764,500	£11,107,450	£70,871,950

* The statements for Chili and Bolivia are compiled from the British "Tables of Revenue," &c.

The copper coinage from 1816 to 1836 was £180,107.

The largest annual amount of gold coinage was in 1821, when it reached the prodigious sum of £9,520,758, equal to \$46,270,000. In 1819, there was only the sum of £3,574. No gold was coined in 1816 and 1840.

The largest amount in silver was in 1817—£2,436,298, equal to \$10,622,000. In the three years of 1830, 1832, and 1833, the annual sum was only about £150. The variation in the yearly amount of labor is probably as great as at any mint in the world.

The following table shows the total amount of coinage, in pieces, from 1816 to 1840:—

GOLD.	Pieces.	Value.
Double sovereigns,.....	16,119	£32,238
Sovereigns,.....	55,468,389	55,468,389
Half sovereigns,.....	8,527,681	4,263,840
SILVER.		
Crowns,.....	1,849,905	462,476
Half Crowns,.....	31,438,434	3,929,804
Shillings,.....	101,645,280	5,082,264
Sixpences,.....	58,324,595	1,458,115
Fourpences,.....	10,371,058	172,850
Three, two, and one penny,.....	2,190

7. FRANCE.

The coinage of gold from 1726 to 1780, was.....	957,200,000 livres.
“ “ 1781-85, estimated†.....	85,000,000 “
“ “ 1786-94.....	738,257,000 “

Total,..... 1,780,457,000 “

The coinage of silver from 1726 to 1791, was 1,966,402,000 livres.‡

There was coined in 30 and 15 sous pieces, (1791,) 25,000,000 francs.

The decimal coinage previous to 1803 is not ascertained.

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Type of Napoleon, 1803-14,.....	fr. 528,024,440	fr. 887,830,055	fr. 1,415,854,495
“ Louis XVIII, 1814-24,.....	389,333,060	614,830,110	1,004,163,170
“ Charles X, 1824-30,.....	52,918,920	632,511,321	685,430,241
“ Louis Philippe I, 1830-40,.....	177,367,740	1,229,440,566	1,406,808,306
Total,.....	1,147,644,160	3,364,612,052	4,512,256,212

AMOUNT OF COINAGE IN PIECES, FROM 1803 TO 1840.§

GOLD.	Value.
Forty francs,.....	fr. 204,431,440
Twenty francs,.....	943,212,720
SILVER.	
Five francs,.....	3,231,045,450
Two francs,.....	57,057,608
One franc,.....	50,359,424
Half franc,.....	22,534,088
Quarter franc,.....	3,615,482
Total,.....	4,512,256,212

* Statements from the British mint, part of which were procured by Mr. Stevenson, United States minister plenipotentiary.

† Neckar, Finances of France, 1785.

‡ Moniteur, April, 1829.

§ These statements are from the mint of Paris, procured by General Cass, United States minister plenipotentiary.

AMOUNT OF COINAGE AT THE RESPECTIVE MINTS, 1803 TO 1840.

MINTS.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Paris,.....	fr. 1,022,920,060	fr. 1,287,795,645	fr. 2,310,715,705
Bayonne,.....	5,047,500	93,613,345	98,660,845
Bordeaux,.....	3,001,540	120,554,841	123,556,381
La Rochelle,.....	597,240	78,911,522	79,508,762
Lille,.....	92,018,120	648,414,360	740,432,480
Limoges,.....	554,260	107,172,166	107,726,426
Lyons,.....	152,765,875	152,765,875
Marseilles,.....	81,060	98,821,853	98,902,913
Nantes,.....	711,040	63,645,791	64,356,831
Perpignan,.....	7,413,500	81,630,569	89,044,069
Rouen,.....	7,940,660	404,528,280	412,468,940
Strasbourg,.....	87,993,097	87,993,097
Toulouse,.....	1,345,440	133,255,485	134,600,925
Genes,.....	228,140	87,099	315,239
Geneva,.....	167,993	167,993
Rome,.....	384,500	341,125	725,625
Turin,.....	3,597,440	2,639,557	6,236,997
Utrecht,.....	1,803,660	2,273,449	4,077,109
Total,.....	1,147,644,160	3,364,612,052	4,512,256,212

Of the foregoing mints, only those of Paris, Bordeaux, Lille, Lyons, Marseilles, Rouen, and Strasbourg, are now in operation. Those of Geneva, Rome, Turin, and Utrecht, were under the empire of Napoleon. They have long since passed out of French jurisdiction.

8. AUSTRIA.

Years.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Ten years, 1793-1802.....	fl. 17,839,288	fl. 245,823,760	fl. 263,663,048
" 1803-12	10,659,916	104,066,665	114,726,581
" 1813-22	24,680,983	44,730,490	69,411,473
" 1823-32	48,710,569	62,246,736	110,957,305
1833	7,681,761	4,801,214	12,482,975
1834	16,708,101	3,319,913	20,028,014
1835	6,760,328	3,068,102	9,828,430
1836	5,967,885	3,264,164	9,232,049
1837	7,213,263	3,909,313	11,122,576
1838	4,181,536	3,088,554	7,270,090
1839	4,382,364	2,785,702	7,168,066
Total,.....	154,785,994	481,104,613	635,890,607

AMOUNT OF COINAGE IN PIECES, FROM 1823 TO 1837, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

GOLD—Sovereigns and halves,.....	fl. 36,974,673	Value.
Ducats, doubles and quadruples,.....	56,067,234	"
SILVER—Rixdollars,.....	27,189,714	"
Half dollars, or florins,.....	None.	"
20 kreutzer pieces,.....	50,581,999	"
10 kreutzer ".....	974,650	"
5 kreutzer ".....	746,678	"
3 kreutzer ".....	1,109,931	"

The copper coinage, from 1793 to 1818, amounted to 180,918,286 florins. None has been coined since 1818.

9. PRUSSIA.

COINAGE OF TWENTY YEARS, 1821 TO 1840, BOTH INCLUDED.*

Double, single, and half Frederickd'ors, in gold,.....	thal. 12,034,406	Value.
Silver thaler pieces,.....	28,303,346	"
Two thaler, or 3½ florin pieces,.....	1,950,090	"
One-sixth thaler pieces,.....	4,854,105	"
Billon pieces,.....	3,147,152	"

The amount of copper coined was 752,273 thalers.

* From the mint at Berlin; procured by Mr. Wheaton, U. S. minister plenipotentiary.

10. SPAIN.

COINAGE OF TWENTY YEARS AT THE MINT OF MADRID, 1822 TO 1841, BOTH INCLUDED.*

GOLD.	Value in rs. vellon.	Value in dollars.
Pistoles, or $\frac{1}{2}$ doubloons,.....	69,338,560	3,466,928
SILVER.		
Dollars, of 20 rs. vellon,.....	11,603,660	580,183
Half dollars,.....	1,190,360	59,518
Pistareens, of 4 rs.,.....	26,978,516	1,348,926
Half pistareens,.....	735,706	36,785
Reals,.....	149,448	7,472

The annual coinage is of very irregular amount; in 1835 it was about \$1,136,000, and in 1841 only \$134,000.

The coinage of the mint at Seville is not ascertained.

A summary statement of the Average Annual Amount of Coinage of Gold and Silver, of late years, in various countries; and the Amount in proportion to their Population.

ANNUAL COINAGE.				
COUNTRIES.	In their own terms.	In U. S. dolls.	Present population.	U. S. cents, per head.
United States,.....	4,300,000	17,000,000	25.3
Mexico,.....	12,000,000	7,700,000	155.8
Colombia,.....	2,000,000	3,200,000	62.5
Peru,.....	3,000,000	1,700,000	176.5
Chili,.....	400,000	1,500,000	26.7
Bolivia,.....	1,500,000	1,500,000	100
Brazil,.....	mlr. 68,000	60,000	5,000,000	1.2
G. Britain & Ireland,.....	£1,500,000	7,300,000	25,000,000	29.2
British India,.....	rs. 30,000,000	13,300,000	113,000,000	11.8
France,.....	fr. 135,000,000	25,600,000	33,500,000	76.4
Sweden,†.....	rx. 650,000	690,000	3,000,000	23
Denmark,‡.....	rgd. 240,000	128,000	2,000,000	6.4
Saxony,.....	th. 470,000	340,000	1,700,000	20
Prussia,.....	th. 2,500,000	1,800,000	13,000,000	13.8
Austria,.....	fl. 12,000,000	6,000,000	34,000,000	17.6
Spain,§.....	ris. 8,000,000	400,000	12,000,000	3.3

PROPORTION OF COINAGE IN LARGE AND SMALL PIECES.

All the gold coins, and the large silver coins, may be considered as international currency, being liable to be carried beyond the limits of its country; while small silver coin remains at home, to supply the daily traffic. It is interesting to inquire in what proportion these two grand divisions of money, *large* and *small*, are coined in various nations of late years. The following will be found near the truth:—

COUNTRIES.	Considered as small coin.	Proportion in value, of small coin to large.
United States,.....	Under a half dollar,.....	1 to 10.6
Great Britain,.....	All the silver, 	1 to 6.6
France,.....	Under five francs,.....	1 to 41
Prussia,.....	Under a thaler,.....	1 to 5.3
Austria,.....	Under a rixdollar,.....	1 to 2.1

* From the mint at Madrid; procured by Mr. Vail, U. S. chargé d'affaires.

† Exclusive of Norway.

‡ The coinage at Altona not included.

§ The coinage at Seville assumed as half that of Madrid.

|| The half crown is a large coin, but being legally overvalued (with the other silver coins) to keep it in the country, is properly placed in the table.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TARIFF OF GERMAN COMMERCIAL UNION.

The following are the heads in which the present differs from the former scale of duties:—

Articles.	Quantity.	By the 14 dol. lar standard, the dollar di- vided into 30 24½ guilder and 24 parts. standard. Import. Export. Import. Export.			
		rzd. gr.	fl. kr.		
COTTON GOODS.					
Cotton wool, and woollen mixed yarns, are classified under No. 2 B of the former tariff, and are therefore taxed.....	1 centner.	8 0	14 0
Warps, whether prepared or not,.....	1 centner.	3 0	5 15
Piece goods and stocking wares, worked or embroidered with woollen, are classed with other cotton piece goods, and pay.....	1 centner.	50 0	87 30
CHEMICALS.					
Chlorate of lime, instead of being classed in Class A, is bracketed with white lead, &c., and the duty thereon reduced to.....	1 centner.	2 0	3 30
IRON.					
Raw iron, passing over the Prussian western provinces, as also from Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, Electoral Hesse, and Luxemburg,.....	..	Free.	Free.
Wrought iron, in lumps and cakes, are classed under No. 6 B, and pay.....	1 centner.	1 0	1 45
Wrought iron manufactured from the finer sorts, and which are meant for machines and wagons, such as curved iron axle, &c., which are to be classed under No. 6 C, and pay.....	1 centner.	3 0	5 15
White plates, iron plates, and wire,.....	1 centner.	4 0	7 0
GLASS AND GLASS WARES.					
Hollow glass with borders only, with uncut stoppers, bottoms, and brims,.....	1 centner.	4 15	7 52½
WOOD AND WOODEN WARES.					
Building and useable wood, by water-carriage, &c., by land, or shipment,.....	{ 1 ship's last, 37½ centners; or by rafts, 75 cubic feet. }				
Oak, elm, ash, maple, cherry, pear, apple, plum, comel, and walnut,.....	..	1 0	1 45
Beech, fir, pine, larch, poplar, and other white woods, saws, staves, bars, fascines, palings, and trellis wood,.....	{ 1 ship's last, or by rafts, 90 cub. feet. }				
Sawed staves and cask-wood, and all other useful wood coming under enumeration No. 1,.....	ship's last.	1 10	2 20
Or under No. 2,.....	..	0 20	1 10
LIME AND GYPSUM.					
Burnt,.....	{ 4 sheffels, or 1 ton. }				
When brought over the Saxon frontier at Zittau, lime only pays half the usual duty.	{ 0 5 .. 0 17½ .. }				

TARIFF OF GERMAN COMMERCIAL UNION—Continued.

Articles.	Quantity.	By the 14 dollar standard, the dollar divided into 30 and 24 parts.		By the 24½ guilder standard.	
		Import.	Export.	Import.	Export.
LEATHER AND LEATHER WARES.					
Brussels and Danish glove-leather, cordovan, morocco, and all colored or lackered leather,.....	1 centner.	rxd. gr. 8 0 ..	fl. kr. 14 0 ..		
TOBACCO.					
Cigars and snuff,.....	1 centner.	15 0 ..	26 15 ..		
SUGAR.					
Raw sugar, and sugar powder,.....	1 centner.	8 0 ..	14 0 ..		
Raw sugar for inland refineries, under special stipulations and control,.....	1 centner.	5 0 ..	8 45 ..		
<i>Mem.</i> —These imposts are only to be taken up to September 1, 1844.					
SILK AND SILK WARES.					
Black and white silk, or floret silk,—					
1. Untwisted,.....	1 centner.	8 0 ..	14 0 ..		
2. Twist, as thread, from raw silk, such as sewing silk, fringe, &c.,	1 centner.	11 0 ..	19 15 ..		
STONE COAL.					
Brought into the Prussian frontiers from the Elbe or Weser,.....	1 centner.	0 ½		
STRAW, REED, AND BASS GOODS.					
Mats and foot covers from bass, straw, &c.,..	1 centner.		
Undyed,	0 5 ..	0 17½ ..		
Dyed,	3 0 ..	5 15 ..		
WOOL AND WOOLEN GOODS.					
Unfulled woollens, as well of wool as mixed with cotton, when printed with patterns, embroidered or sewn,.....	1 centner.	50 0 ..	87 30 ..		

The London Times, in speaking of the new tariff of the German Commercial Union, says:—"This paper, which has been so long expected, and upon the contents of which so many dreary forebodings have been uttered by our manufacturers, has at last come to hand, and we are happy to say that the prognostications of evil so widely disseminated have proved almost entirely without foundation. Indeed, we had hardly expected to have found the document so harmless to British interests and commerce.

"The most important articles of British export are, with one exception, (that of figured goods of mixed cotton and wool, such as mousseline de laine,) left in almost the same situation in which they were placed by the last tariff; nor have our imports of iron been more affected, though it is quite evident that strenuous efforts have been made by various of the German states producing that article to procure the imposition of a heavier duty upon English iron of all sorts; and, indeed, almost one-half of this state paper is taken up with protocols and arguments for and against increasing the duties upon the two articles of cotton and iron. Fortunately, however, some of the most important and influential states of the union saw the mischief that would be inflicted upon the general well-being of German commerce by an increased tax, which would tend to cripple their own trade to a degree hardly to be foreseen; and the consequence was, that, with the exception of the increase upon printed goods manufactured of a mixture of cotton and wool, the tariff is really very little altered.

"With these exceptions, the whole of which are charged as above, the alterations in the present tariff are utterly insignificant, the most important being that upon mousseline de laine, figured, and upon which the duty is heavy; plain articles of that description, without pattern, would appear to remain precisely as heretofore."

NEW SARDINIAN TARIFF.

The following are some of the most important items in the new Sardinian tariff, which is to come into effect on the 1st of January. The denomination "£" means "*Lire nuove*," which are the same as francs, and the fractional parts are centimes. To show the great liberality of the measure, we have added the rates under the present scale of duty:—

Articles.	New Duty.		Old Duty.	
	£	c.	£	c.
Raw sugar,.....	35	0 per quintal.	45	0 per quintal.
Ammonia,.....	20	0 "	32	0 "
Soap,.....	30	0 "	50	0 "
Nitric acid,.....	25	0 "	80	0 "
Sulphuric acid,.....	9	0 "	80	0 "
Potash, soda, &c.,.....	5	0 "	20	0 "
Copperas,.....	16	0 "	20	0 "
Zinc, sulphate of,.....	10	0 "	20	0 "
Litharge,.....	6	0 "	12	0 "
Gum lac,.....	4	0 "	10	0 "
Dyewoods,.....	1	5 "	{ 2 0 } to { 4 0 }	
Quercitron bark,.....	3	0 "	6	0 "
Glue,.....	10	0 "	20	0 "
Fish glue,.....	50	0 "	65	0 "
Furs,.....	12	0 "	24	0 "
Harness, plain,.....	1	20 "	2	0 "
" ornamented,.....	2	50 "	5	0 "
Saddles, each,.....	20	0 "	30	0 "
Gloves, per pair,.....	0	25 "	1	0 "
Shoes,.....	1	50 "	5	0 "
Boots,.....	5	0 "	18	0 "
Gaiters, leather,.....	2	0 "	6	0 "
Hemp,.....	1	0 "	2	0 "
Oilcloth,.....	0	80 "	2	0 "
Hosiery, embroidered,.....	5	0 kilograms.	7	0 kilograms.
Thread buttons, white or dyed,.....	2	50 "	5	50 "
Thread lace, 1st quality,.....	20	0 "	32	0 "
" 2d quality,.....	16	0 "	16	0 "
Cotton twist, unbleached,—				
Below No. 40,.....	0	90 "	{ 1 0 }	
Above No. 40,.....	0	70 "	{ to 1 50 }	
Double-twisted, whatever number,.....	1	20 "	3	0 "
Bleached or dyed, any number,.....	1	80 "	4	0 "
Cotton cloths,—				
Unbleached,.....	2	0 "	4	0 "
Bleached,.....	2	50 "	4	0 "
Colored or dyed,.....	3	0 "	5	0 "
Printed,.....	4	0 "	5	50 "
Embroidered with thread, cotton, or wool,.....	5	0 "	8	0 "
Embroidered with silk, silver, or gold,.....	12	0 "	20	0 "
Cotton hosiery,—				
Plain, or embroidered with silk, cotton, or wool,.....	5	0 "	8	0 "

SARDINIAN TARIFF—Continued.

Articles.	New Duty.	Old Duty.
	£ c.	£ c.
Buttons, white or dyed,.....	2 50 "	5 50 killograms.
<i>Woollen stuffs,—</i>		
Plain, or mixed with cotton or wool,.....	2 0 " and 20 p. cent on val.	5 0 "
Embroidered with thread, wool, cotton, silk, gold, or silver,.....	5 0 killograms. and 12 0 "	20 0 " to 30 0 "
Hosiery, plain and embroidered,.....	5 0 "	7 0 "
Carpets, (Turkey excepted,).....	3 0 "	20 0 "
<i>Silks,—</i>		
Stuffs, all of silk, or mixed with other material,.....	20 0 "	30 0 "
Hosiery, silk or mixed,.....	20 0 "	30 0 "
" of waste silk, plain or mixed,...	12 0 "	20 0 "
Ribands, plain or mixed,.....	20 0 "	30 0 "
Lace, blonde,.....	20 0 "	30 0 "
Paper duties, reduced about 30 per cent.		
Umbrellas and parasols, silk, each.....	2 0	4 0
Umbrellas and parasols, cotton, each.....	1 50	3 0
Carriages, with springs, on value,.....	10 per cent.	15 per cent.
<i>Copper,—</i>		
Copper ore,.....	0 10 per quintal.	1 0 per quintal.
In pigs or pieces,.....	8 0 "	16 0 "
In sheets,.....	16 0 "	40 0 "
Worked with iron,.....	30 0 "	40 0 "
Worked without iron,.....	40 0 "	50 0 "
Copper wire,.....	40 0 "	50 0 "
<i>Brass,—</i>		
In bars or pieces,.....	8 0 "	16 0 "
In plates,.....	16 0 "	40 0 "
Zinc,.....	8 0 "	12 0 "
In sheets,.....	16 0 "	20 0 "

TARIFF OF COLONIAL DUTIES,

To take effect from and after 1st July, 1842, and to continue in operation until the 30th June, 1843, agreeably to Ordinance No. 7, 1842.

It is ordered and enacted, that there shall be raised, levied, and collected, a tax or duty of two dollars and fifty cents upon every one hundred dollars value of all and every description of goods or commodities whatsoever, imported into British Guiana, being of the origin or manufacture of Great Britain and Ireland, the duty now leviable under the provisions of Ordinance No. 3, anno 1841, being included herein; and there shall also be levied and paid upon all articles, goods, wares, and merchandise, to be imported into British Guiana, not being of the origin, growth, or manufacture of Great Britain and Ireland, and hereinafter enumerated, the following

SPECIFIC DUTIES.

Wheat flour, per barrel, 196lbs., paying crown duty,.....	\$2 00
Wheat flour, per barrel, 196lbs., not paying crown duty,.....	2 00
Rye flour, per barrel, 196lbs.,.....	0 50
Corn and pulse, per bushel,.....	0 30
Corn meal, per 100lbs.,.....	0 60
Rice, per 100lbs.,.....	1 00
Oats, per bushel,.....	0 20
Bread, as pilot, navy biscuit, and crackers, and all other kinds, per 100lbs.,.....	0 50

SPECIFIC DUTIES—Continued.

Dry fish, per quintal.....	\$1 00
Salmon, per barrel, 200lbs.,.....	2 00
Pickled mackerel, per barrel, 200lbs.,.....	1 50
Pickled fish of all other sorts, per barrel, 200lbs.,.....	0 75
Barrels of beef and pork, 200lbs.,.....	3 00
Candles, tallow, per lb.,.....	0 05
Candles, spermaceti, wax, or composition, per lb.,.....	0 08
Soap, per lb.,.....	0 01
Butter, per lb.,.....	0 02
Lard, per lb.,.....	0 01
Tobacco, in packages not less than 800lbs., per 100lbs.,.....	15 00
Tobacco, in packages less than 800lbs., manufactured or otherwise, per 100lbs.,.....	20 00
Cigars, per 1,000,.....	2 00
Tea, per lb.,.....	0 25
Pepper, sago, tapiaco, per 100lbs.,.....	5 00
Cocoa, per 100lbs.,.....	5 00
Chocolate, per 100lbs.,.....	10 00
Sugar,.....
Pitch, tar, and rosin, per barrel,.....	1 00
Crude turpentine, per barrel,.....	0 50
Spirits turpentine, per gallon,.....	0 15
Spermaceti oil, per gallon,.....	0 20
Other description of oils, per gallon,.....	0 10
White pine lumber, per 1,000 feet, board measure,.....	2 00
Pitch pine lumber, per 1,000 feet, board measure,.....	3 00
Red oak staves, per 1,000,.....	1 50
White oak staves and heading, per 1,000,.....	2 00
Clap-boards, per 1,000,.....	1 50
Shingles, of all kinds, per 1,000,.....	0 50
House frames, white pine, per running foot, per story,.....	0 10
" " pitch pine, " " "	0 20
Horses, per head,.....	7 00
Mules, ".....	5 00
Potatoes, per bushel of 64 lbs.,.....	0 08
Bottled wine of all descriptions, per dozen,.....	1 00
Wine in wood of all kinds, per pipe of 110 gallons,.....	33 00
Cattle, (neat,).....	4 00

It is provided, that such tax on cattle shall cease to be levied whenever the market price of beef in Georgetown shall exceed 17 cents per pound. Spirituous liquors, liqueurs and cordials, per gallon, proof 24, or weaker, 67 cents, and a farther sum of 4 cents for every degree of stronger proof.

There shall be levied and collected upon every 100 weight of foreign sugar, refined in bond and imported into British Guiana, a duty of five dollars; upon every 100 weight of other foreign refined sugar, a duty of ten dollars; upon bastard sugars a duty, per 100 weight, of four dollars.

British spirits imported into this colony after the publication of this Ordinance, to pay a rate of duty of 67 cents per gallon, proof 24, or weaker; and a farther sum of four cents for every degree of stronger proof.

And in addition to the above rates of duty upon the importation of the several articles enumerated in the above schedule, there shall also be raised, levied, and paid upon the said several articles an ad valorem duty of two dollars and one half dollar, being the duty upon every one hundred dollars leviable and payable thereon under the provisions of the Ordinance No. 3, anno 1841; and there shall be also levied and paid on all other articles not enumerated in the above schedule, save and except as aforesaid, and except specie; which is hereby specially exempted, an ad valorem duty of five dollars upon every hundred dollars of the value thereof, over and above the 2½ per cent leviable thereon, under the said Ordinance No. 3.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

NOTES ON THE CENSUS—THE NEWSPAPER PRESS.

A RECENT number of the Cincinnati Chronicle has some interesting notes on the census of 1840. "In France," says the editor of the Gazette, "under the old constitution, they had what was called the *Tiers Etat*, or parliament, which, in finance and power, was a large part of the realm." In this country, and, indeed, in Europe also, the *Press* has become the *Tiers Etat*; which, though not vested by the constitution with the forms of power, holds very much the substance. The following is the number of the different classes of newspapers and periodicals in the United States, arranged according to rank:—

	Daily.	Weekly.	Semi-w.	Period.		Daily.	Weekly.	Semi-w.	Period.
New York,...	34	198	13	57	Vermont,.....	2	26	2	3
Pennsylvania,...	12	165	10	42	N. Hampshire,...	...	27	...	6
Ohio,.....	9	107	7	20	Mississippi,....	2	28	1	...
Massachusetts	10	67	14	14	Michigan,.....	6	26	...	1
Indiana,.....	...	69	4	3	N. Carolina,...	...	26	1	2
Virginia,.....	4	35	12	5	S. Carolina,...	3	12	2	4
Illinois,.....	3	38	2	9	Alabama,.....	3	24	1	...
Tennessee,....	2	38	6	10	Rhode Island,.	2	10	4	2
Maryland,.....	7	28	7	7	Arkansas,.....	...	6	3	...
Connecticut,.	2	27	4	11	Delaware,.....	...	3	3	2
Kentucky,	5	26	7	8	D. of Columbia	3	5	6	3
Maine,.....	3	30	3	5	Florida,.....	...	10
New Jersey, ..	1	31	1	4	Wisconsin,....	...	6
Georgia,.....	5	24	5	6	Iowa,.....	...	4
Louisiana, ...	11	21	2	3					
Missouri,.....	6	24	5	...	Total,.....	135	1,141	125	227

The number of daily papers in the United States is larger than one would imagine; and the number of what are called periodicals, is much larger than can be profitably supported.

It seems there are but five states in the Union which have not daily papers; there are but four which have not periodicals.

In the following table will be found the proportion between the newspapers of the United States and the white people. Had the blacks been included, it would have made a change in the proportions of the slave states. The table, however, develops some instructive facts:—

Louisiana,.....	1 in 4,773	New Jersey,.....	1 in 9,325
Mississippi,.....	1 in 5,821	Missouri, .	1 in 9,285
Rhode Island,....	1 in 6,000	Delaware,.....	1 in 9,370
Michigan,.....	1 in 6,400	Georgia,.....	1 in 10,270
Massachusetts,....	1 in 7,019	Ohio,.....	1 in 10,700
Connecticut,.....	1 in 7,049	Tennessee,.....	1 in 11,537
Maryland,.....	1 in 7,775	Alabama,.....	1 in 12,060
New York,.....	1 in 8,271	Maine,.....	1 in 12,230
Pennsylvania,....	1 in 8,528	South Carolina,...	1 in 12,700
New Hampshire,...	1 in 8,623	Kentucky,.....	1 in 12,980
Arkansas,.....	1 in 8,700	Virginia,.....	1 in 14,125
Vermont,.....	1 in 8,853	North Carolina,...	1 in 17,500
Indiana,.....	1 in 9,023	Slave States,.....	1 in 10,787
Illinois,.....	1 in 9,153	Free States,.....	1 in 8,285

The above proportions are worth looking at. The following conclusions may be drawn:—

1. Three of the oldest and most influential states of the American Union, viz., Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina, have the smallest proportional number of newspapers (as they have also the fewest persons who know how to read) to the white population; but if the blacks be included, they fall far behindhand.

2. Where newspapers most prevail, as in Massachusetts, New York, &c., there also are most schools, most enterprise, most wealth, and most progress. The conclusion is, not that newspapers occasion these results, but that the press and intelligence go together: mutual helps to each other.

The proportional number of papers appears large in Louisiana and Mississippi, but this is caused by two evident facts. Each of them has large commercial towns, and each has more blacks than whites; the proportion being taken only in respect to the latter. The subject is important in more respects than one. If the press be thus numerous and powerful, how is a nation to be purified in its morals unless the press be purified? That which is seen, read, heard every day, like the air we breathe, will communicate strength or weakness, healing or disease.

CHANGES IN THE POPULATION OF CITIES.

NEW YORK — PHILADELPHIA — BOSTON — BALTIMORE — NEW ORLEANS — CHARLESTON — CINCINNATI.

In 1790, when the first census was taken, Philadelphia was the largest city in America, its population being over 42,000, while New York had but 33,000. Boston was then larger than Charleston, and Charleston larger than Baltimore, the latter city then having but 13,000 inhabitants.

In 1800, Philadelphia was even more in advance of New York than ten years before, having now a population of over 70,000, and New York only 60,000. Baltimore had nearly doubled her census, and was now a larger place than Boston or Charleston, having a population of 26,614.

In 1810, Philadelphia was ahead of New York by only about 300 inhabitants, the former numbering 96,664 persons, the latter 96,373. New York, however, had increased 36,000, and Philadelphia only 26,000. Baltimore had increased 20,000, Boston 7,000, Charleston 6,000. The population of New Orleans was only 17,000, and of Cincinnati only 2,500.

In 1820, New York had overreached Philadelphia by more than 15,000 inhabitants. Philadelphia had increased only about 11,000, while New York had progressed over 27,000, and returned a census of 123,706. Baltimore had increased 16,000, Boston 11,000, New Orleans 10,000, Cincinnati 7,000, while Charleston had *decreased* over 200.

In 1830, New York showed an increase of nearly 80,000, having a population of 203,000. Philadelphia had increased 59,000, and exhibited a census of 167,000; Baltimore had increased 18,000, and now numbered over 80,000; Boston had increased 18,000, and returned a census of over 61,000; Charleston had increased nearly 6,000, and had a population of over 30,000; New Orleans had increased over 19,000, and showed over 46,000 inhabitants; and Cincinnati had increased over 16,000, and now numbered about 25,000. At the last census these cities stood thus:—

	Population.	Increase.	Decrease.
New York,.....	312,710	109,701
Philadelphia,	228,691	61,573
Baltimore,.....	102,313	21,698
New Orleans,.....	102,193	56,000
Boston,.....	93,383	32,000
Cincinnati,.....	46,338	21,507
Charleston,.....	29,261	1,028

Philadelphia, which was the most populous in 1790, now ranks the second; New York, which then ranked second, now stands first; Baltimore, which then stood fifth, is now the third city. New Orleans, which, twenty years after, had only a population of 17,000, and was but the sixth city in point of size, is now the fourth; Boston, then the third, is now the fifth; Charleston, then the fourth, is now the ninth; while Cincinnati, then altogether unsettled, now ranks as the sixth city in the Union.

These statistics show singular changes and astonishing progress. One city, in fifty years, increasing nearly 280,000, and another city, in the same time, increasing but little over 12,000; while a spot in the western wilderness, then untenanted save by a log cabin, and worth, on sale, about forty dollars, now contains a larger population, by several thousands, than inhabited at that time any city in the Union. He who lives fifty years hence, shall see far greater changes than these; and even then our country will be, comparatively speaking, but in the morning of her days. Greece had been settled a thousand years before its golden age; and England had passed through the revolution of ten centuries, from the mission of St. Augustine in 596, to the Augustin era of English learning in the age of Queen Elizabeth.

POPULATION OF LONG ISLAND.

The census of 1840 shows that the population of Long Island (which contains an area of about 1,400 square miles) had increased nearly sixty per cent in ten years, or more than twice the average per cent increase of the whole state. The following has been the population of the island at each census taken during the present century:—

1800.....	42,365	1830.....	69,593
1810.....	48,752	1835.....	95,461
1820.....	56,978	1840.....	110,406
1825.....	58,705		

Increase in 50 years, 160 per cent.

PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN THE SEVERAL COUNTIES ON THE ISLAND.

Year.	Kings.	Queens.	Suffolk.	Year.	Kings.	Queens.	Suffolk.
1800.....	5,740	16,891	19,734	1830.....	20,537	22,276	26,780
1810.....	8,303	19,336	21,113	1835.....	32,057	25,130	28,274
1820.....	11,182	21,519	24,272	1840.....	47,613	30,324	32,469
1825.....	14,679	20,331	23,695				

The construction of the Long Island Railroad will doubtless greatly increase the prosperity of the island. Its population now is greater than either of the States of Rhode Island, Delaware, or Arkansas.

EMIGRATION.

The emigration for the last twelve years from the United Kingdom to Canada and the United States, has been as follows:—

Year.	Canada.	U. States.	Year.	Canada.	U. States.
1829.....	15,945	11,501	1838.....	3,266	13,059
1830.....	28 000	21,433	1839.....	7,439	24,376
1831.....	50,254	22,607	1840.....	22,234	41,500
1832.....	51,746	28,283	1841.....	28,086	32,509
1833.....	21,752	16,100			
1834.....	30,935	26,540	Total.....	321,807	347,632
1835.....	12,527	16,749			
1836.....	27,722	59,075	Aver.....	26,800	28,700
1837.....	21,901	34,000			

It will be observed that, for some years past, a much larger proportion of the emigrants have come to the United States than formerly. Of those who landed in Canada in 1841, about 3,500 proceeded to the states. The average length of passages to Quebec in the same year was forty-seven days.

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Poems*. By ALFRED TENNYSON. 2 vols. 18 mo. pp. 233 and 231. Boston: William D. Ticknor. 1842.

It is rather difficult to appreciate the beauty of one of these lays unless it be read twice. On reading it the first time, the oddities of the style shut out the exquisite sympathetic melodies which, on a second perusal, lull the reader into a sweet ecstasy, carrying him away in close union with the hero that happens to be the subject of the song. Alfred Tennyson must be a strange existence. We are told by a friend that he lives in a dusky garret-room in an obscure street of London, and there puts to paper these creations of his genius. About ten years ago, many of these same poems were published in England; but, meeting with a hard fate from the penny-critics, their author called in all the copies that had been sold, and made of them a burnt-offering to the muse. The manuscript was suffered to lie quietly in his desk, until a young American literatus induced the author to permit them to be published in this country. We cannot describe Tennyson's mind in better language than his own, when he said of the poet's mind that

"Clear and bright it should be ever,
Flowing like a crystal river;
Bright as light, and clear as wind."

He lives in the nearest sympathy with nature. In her smallest operations, he spies out the unseen all-enlivening spirit that animates her bodies: the hum of the yellow-banded bees—the solemn oak-tree, that sigheth with an ancient melody of inward agony—the bleating lamb—the flowers that blow—the click of the latch, when the milk-maid opens the door in early morning—all such sounds occur in most melodious harmony.

- 2.—*Rambles in Yucatan: or, Notes of Travel through the Peninsula; including a Visit to the remarkable Ruins of Chi-Chen, Kabah, Zayi, and Uxmal*. With numerous illustrations. By B. M. NORMAN. 1 vol. 8vo. pp. 304. New York: J. & H. G. Langley. 1842.

In the volume before us we have the most interesting details of farther researches in reference to the gigantic monumental remains of ancient cities, in a region never before visited by any modern traveller. With a spirit of indomitable energy, the author penetrated into the heart of the country; and, as a reward for his labor and industry, he has been enabled to announce to the world facts entirely new in regard to the ruins of Chi-Chen, Kabah, and Zayi. Endowed with happy descriptive powers, Mr. Norman has not only portrayed for the mental eye very interesting accounts of the most remarkable ruins of ancient cities, temples, pyramids, and idols, but he has ornamented his book with nearly fifty splendid embellishments for the gratification of the visual eye. To the lover of light reading, the picturesque and pleasing style of the author's personal narrative of adventures cannot but be acceptable. Equally interesting to every class of readers must be his descriptions of the manners and customs of the people, as well as the account of their recent political history. Who were the people by whom these ancient monuments of civilization were erected? This is a question that arises spontaneously in the mind of every one. Even at the period of the Spanish discovery, many of these tribes were found to be polished and cultivated, and living in large and flourishing cities. But, even then, the Spaniards were told by these people that they had been preceded by a much more highly cultivated race; and these, like the Romans, had been overrun by savage hordes, who subsequently adopted the arts and manners of the conquered. Hence, some of these antiquities may be coeval with the earliest civilization, as that of Egypt, Babylon, Nineveh, or Thebes. The beautiful style of dress in which the book has been presented to the public, justly claims our admiration.

- 3.—*Brande's Encyclopædia: a Dictionary of Science, Literature, and Art; comprising the History, Description, and Scientific Principles of every Branch of Human Knowledge; with the Derivation and Definition of all the Terms in General Use.* General Editor, W. T. BRANDE, F. R. S. L. & E., of Her Majesty's Mint; Professor of Chemistry in the Royal Institution; Professor of Chemistry and Materia Medica to the Apothecaries' Company, &c. &c. &c. Assisted by JOSEPH CAUVIN, Esq. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1842.

A more learned, comprehensive, and useful work than this has seldom, if ever, issued from the press. It embraces the whole field of human knowledge, and combines with the convenience, precision, and cheapness of the Dictionary, the fullness of information, excepting minor details, to be found in the most voluminous Encyclopædias. It is not a compilation from previous productions, but an original work, written with the utmost care, giving the latest information on every subject; and in the preparation of which, in order to secure more perfect accuracy, particular departments were assigned to individuals specially conversant with them. Some of the most eminent scholars and men of science in Great Britain were contributors—as McCulloch in Political Economy, Statistics, and Commerce; Loudon in Gardening and Agriculture; Lindley in Botany; Lardner in the Application of Steam, &c.; Owen in Zoology, Anatomy, and Physiology; Galloway in Mathematics, &c.; Gwilt in Architecture, Music, and the Fine Arts; and others, no less distinguished in their respective branches. The result of such a combination of talent and learning has been a most complete work, alike useful to all classes of readers. As a book of reference, it is invaluable. It is a work of 1350 pages, royal octavo, printed in double columns, and the publishers issue it in semi-monthly numbers at twenty-five cents each, or three dollars for the complete work—about one-fourth the price of the English edition, and in no respect inferior to it. This is unprecedentedly cheap.

- 4.—*History of Europe, from the Commencement of the French Revolution, in 1789, to the Restoration of the Bourbons, in 1815.* By ARCHIBALD ALISON, F. R. S. E. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1842.

This celebrated work, the first volume of which was published, we believe, in 1832, and has been but very recently completed in ten large octavo volumes, has been read in Europe with a constantly growing interest, and we notice, with great satisfaction, its republication in this country. It is, beyond a doubt, the most brilliant, profound, and, in all respects, able historical work of the present century; while no period, perhaps, in the annals of the world is so full of wonderful events, or so worthy of being studied, as the one of which it treats. Mr. Alison combines in himself all the qualities of a great historian—acuteness, elaborate research, a noble independence, a genius at once brilliant and profound, and an eloquence that gives the highest charm to his narrative. We are pleased to see a work of so much interest published in so cheap and convenient a form. The publishers announce that it will be issued in numbers of 144 pages, at twenty-five cents each, one number every two weeks, and that the cost of the entire work will be but four dollars. The English edition is advertised at £10, or nearly fifty dollars.

- 5.—*Hutton's Book of Nature Laid Open.* Revised and Improved, by Rev. J. L. BLAKE, D.D., author of several works on General Literature. 18 mo. 1842.

The design of this little work is, to lead the youthful intellect to the contemplation of the works of the Creator; and it appears to have been the object of Dr. Blake, in the arrangement of these pages, to present familiar and comprehensive delineations of nature, thus showing to the reader the self-evident proposition, that in every object in the natural world, there are ample traces of the wisdom, power, and benevolence of the Creator; convincing proofs that even the silent weed and the meanest insect offer incontrovertible evidences of their Maker. Questions are added at the bottom of the pages, and the work, although prepared expressly for young persons, will be found interesting to more advanced minds.

- 6.—*The Condition and Fate of England.* By the author of "The Glory and Shame of England." 2 vols. 12 mo. pp. 278 and 307. New York: J. & H. G. Longley. 1842.

The faults of this work are so apparent that they may be easily detected. Abating a little for the spirit of exaggeration so conspicuous in the volumes before us, and more, perhaps, for the one-sided, ultra-Americanism which pervades the work, we confess, the penny-a-line critics to the contrary notwithstanding, that it has afforded us much valuable information touching the social condition of the operatives of England, and excited our deepest sympathies in their behalf. The author may have portrayed the dark side of their condition in too strong a light, but he has certainly fortified the views taken with an array of evidence, from British authorities, that we cannot well resist or discredit. The work is divided into eleven parts, or "books." The first embraces a view of the power and magnificence of the British empire, with illustrations of the spirit of the feudal and of the modern age; the second, the general condition of the British people in past ages, their burdens and sufferings; the third, the present condition of the British people, and the burdens which oppress them; the fourth, a continuation of the same subject, with a short reply to "The Fame and Glory of England Vindicated;" the fifth furnishes some glances at the sufferings and crime, the ignorance and degradation, caused by the oppressive burdens laid upon the British nation; the sixth, a continuation of the fifth; the seventh, include her woes and struggles under English oppression; the eighth, the feelings and determination of the people; the ninth, the feelings, &c., of the aristocracy; the tenth, the progress of the democratic principle; the eleventh, the issue. Mr. Lester writes with great force and spirit, and has made, on the whole, a work that will be read, we hope, by every American, with deep interest.

- 7.—*Fables of La Fontaine.* Translated from the French, by ELEAZER WRIGHT, JUN. 2 vols. 18mo. Boston: Tappan & Dennet. 1842.

The present English version of the incomparable fables of La Fontaine, by our countryman Wright, has received the consenting praise of the reviewers on both sides of the Atlantic. The first edition was published about two years ago, in a beautifully illustrated and elegantly printed octavo volume; and we are glad to perceive that a more economical form has been called for by the "people and their children." The present edition, embellished with vignettes engraved by Hartwell, from designs in the larger work, is now offered to the public on a smaller page, at one-tenth of the price of the first octavo edition.—"La Fontaine selected the most excellent of the apologues which he found afloat in the world, and, clothing them in his own graceful style, wrought them into a sort of system or code of morals. His success has been complete. He teaches not only in all the schools of his own country, but throughout the world, wherever the French language is an object of study. In the accomplishment of his task, his felicity of style, his judiciousness of selection and arrangement, his delicacy and pointedness of satire, and his bland, republican view of mankind, leave little to be desired but a faithful transference of his work into our vernacular English."

- 8.—*Thulia, a Tale of the Antarctic.* By J. C. PALMER, U. S. Navy. New York: Samuel Colman. 1842.

The first thing that strikes us in taking up this book, is the beauty of its external appearance. In all that relates to mechanical execution, it has scarcely ever, if ever, been exceeded by anything that has come from the American press; and we assure our readers that we are not indebted to the printer or the binder for its chief attractions. The poetry is such as we should be quite willing to have read on the other side of the Atlantic; and the narrative, explanatory of the incidents referred to in the poem, is not only a beautiful piece of composition, but is exceedingly interesting as a matter of history. It speaks well for our navy, that a work of so much merit should have been produced by one of its officers.

- 9.—*Critical and Miscellaneous Essays of T. Babington Macaulay.* vol. 4. 12 mo. pp. 426. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1843.

Macaulay is unquestionably the most brilliant and popular reviewer of the day. As an essay writer, with all the classical elegance of our minister plenipotentiary to England, he possesses far greater power of utterance, and more originality of thought. Brought up under the tuition of Brougham, he seems to have acquired most of the attributes of that great and liberal mind without parting with any of the native or intuitive genius of his own nicely developed intellect. The volume before us embraces some of the latest productions of his pen, which have appeared in the *Edinburgh Review* since January, 1841, viz.: "Comic Dramatists of the Restoration," "The Late Lord Holland," "Warren Hastings," "Frederick the Great." Appended to the present volume, are his splendid "Lays of Ancient Rome," "full of the old Roman spirit, and stirring the heart like a trumpet by their fire and strength." We consider Macaulay as among the finest models of English scholarship of the present age.

- 10.—*Education—Part I. History of Education, Ancient and Modern.—Part II. A Plan of Culture and Instruction, based on Christian Principles, and designed to aid in the Right Education of Youth, Physically, Intellectually, and Morally.* By H. J. SMITH, A.M., Professor of Modern Languages in Pennsylvania College, and Professor of German Language and Literature in the Theological Seminary at Gettysburg, Pa. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1842.

Mankind are what they are by education—that is, their principles, character, and habits are chiefly formed by the instruction they receive in early life, the circumstances in which they are placed, and the examples then set before them. It is in this broad sense that education is considered in this very able treatise. The child is a subject for education from its birth—its physical nature is to be strengthened by right treatment, its senses trained, correct impressions made; and as the higher faculties are developed, new and more serious demands are made upon parental attention. Parents are therefore the most efficient, as well as earliest, educators of their offspring; and their duty in this particular is very powerfully enforced in this volume. A plan of scholastic instruction is also given, and we do not know of a more valuable book for parents or teachers. It is published in the Family Library, and forms the 156th number of that popular selection.

- 11.—*The Salem Belle; a Tale of 1692.* Boston: Tappan & Dennet. 1842.

Interwoven in a rather attractive and exciting tale, we have recorded the events connected with the Salem witchcraft delusion that prevailed near the close of the seventeenth century. The elements of delusion always exist in the human mind. Sometimes they slumber for years, and then break forth with volcanic energy, spreading ruin and desolation in their path. "Even now, the distant roar of these terrible agents comes with confused and omenous sound on the ear. What form of mischief they will assume, is among the mysteries of the future; that desolation will follow in their train, no one can doubt; that they will purify the moral atmosphere, and throw up mighty land-marks as guides to future ages, is equally certain. The evil or good which shall be the final result, depends, under Providence, on the measures of wisdom we may gather from the lessons of the past." It appears to be the design of these pages to hold up the beacons of the past, and, in this connection, to illustrate the sound condition, the habits, manners, and general state of New England in those early days of its history.

- 12.—*Self-Culture.* By WILLIAM E. CHANNING, D.D. With a Biographical Sketch of the Author. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1842.

This essay was delivered in Boston in September, 1838, as introductory to the Franklin Lectures. Like everything from the pen of the lamented Channing, it is replete with pure and elevated views, enforced with all the eloquence of truth, and that deep and all-pervading tone of humanity which is infused into every page and paragraph of this incomparable writer and truly Christian philosopher.

- 13.—*Perambulations of Cosmopolite; or, Travels and Labors of Lorenzo Dow in Europe and America, including a Brief Account of his early Life and Christian Correspondence, as contained in his Journal.* To which is added, *His Chain, Journey from Babylon to Jerusalem, Dialogue between Singular and Curious, Hints on the Fulfilment of Prophecy, etc.* By ORRIN SCOFIELD. 8vo. pp. 508. New York: Geo. W. Wood & Co., 45 Gold-street. 1842.

This is a singular book, by a man of eccentric genius, who acquired a distinguished rank among the characters of his time. As a philanthropist and christian, he is said to have sought the best interests of mankind, and pursued the course which, in his opinion, would best promote that object. Though eccentric in his manners, he was proverbially strict in accomplishing every enterprise he undertook, whatever sacrifice it might cost. Unawed by power, and unbiassed by creeds, he followed out principles peculiar to himself, which excited much interest among his contemporaries, some of whom charged him with enthusiasm, and others with insanity; but, though he had to encounter the tide of opposition from various sources, he never murmured a reproach, but pursued a steady and onward course, without yielding to the frowns or flatteries of men, or surrendering any imbibed doctrine in his creed without what he considered the most conclusive evidence of the error. His "Analects upon the Rights of Man," in this volume, evince his entire freedom from bigotry, and ardent devotion to that liberty of conscience which discards all pretensions to human infallibility, and claims the right of private judgment in all that concerns the human in its relation to the Divine.

- 14.—*Lives of the Presidents of the United States; with Biographical Notices of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence, Sketches of the most Remarkable Events in the History of the Country.* By ROBERT W. LINCOLN. 8vo. pp. 578. New York: E. Kearney. 1842.

The author of the "Lives of the Presidents" very naturally acknowledges the difficulty of preserving that strict impartiality which the nature of such a work requires. It seems, however, to have been his aim (and he has, we think, in a good degree accomplished it) to view near events with the eye of a distant spectator, and to anticipate the dispassionate judgment which posterity will pass upon the great men who have administered our government. The materials for the biographer are scattered in various directions, and the sources not always pure; but Mr. Lincoln appears to have resorted only to those least exposed to suspicion. The present edition embraces sketches of Harrison and Tyler, and furnishes the only complete biography extant of all the Presidents of the United States.

- 15.—*The Little Gift*, comprising Selections from the Child's Gem. Second Series. Edited by a LADY. New York: S. Colman. 1842.

A pretty Lilliputian quarto of 120 pages, filled with a variety of pleasant tales and sketches, admirably adapted to the tastes and capacities of little children.

- 16.—*Poems for the Little Folks.* New York: Samuel Colman. 1842.

Similar in form to the "Little Gift," and, like that, a very pretty and appropriate present for the important personages named in the title-page.

- 17.—*The Age of Gold, and other Poems.* By GEORGE LUNT. 12mo. pp. 160. Boston: William D. Ticknor. 1843.

- 18.—*The Deserted Bride, and other Poems.* By GEORGE P. MORRIS. 8vo. pp. 172. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

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